

THE SOUTHERN SPEECH JOURNAL

MARCH, 1951

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ALBERT PIKE: CITIZEN SPEECHMAKER OF ARKANSAS

VIRGIL L. BAKER*

Albert Pike was a man of prodigious energies with interests as varied as the eventful times and circumstances through which he lived. He was a traveler, scholar, schoolmaster, poet, editor, lawyer, military officer, grand commander in the Masonic order, and speechmaker.

The occasions for his speechmaking grew out of his civic interests. He was not a member of any state or national legislature, never held a political office, yet he was widely known as a speaker throughout the South, and to a lesser extent throughout the nation. He was a public minded gentleman orator who spent the prime years of his life as a citizen of Arkansas.

This study covers the main body of his occasional addresses, with the exception of his speeches on Masonry, made over a period of twenty-seven years.

BACKGROUND

Pike was descended from an old English family with intellect and adventure in the strain. "He was of the same staunch stock," says Allsop, "as Nicholas Pike, author of the first arithmetic published in America, and as Zebulon Montgomery Pike, who explored the Rocky Mountains. . . ."¹ He was the son of Benjamin, a shoemaker, and Sarah Andrews Pike. Born in Boston, December 29, 1809, he went to school at Newburyport and Framingham Academy, where, under the instruction of his cousin, Alfred W. Pike, preceptor,

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¹Fred W. Allsopp, *Albert Pike* (Little Rock, 1928), 7.

he began to prepare himself for the Harvard College entrance examinations.²

After a few months at the Academy, Pike passed the Harvard entrance examinations, being "exceedingly good," he wrote later, "in mathematics and rather exceptionally good in Greek."³ Having no immediate financial support, he decided to teach and at the same time prepare himself to enter the junior class at Harvard. He set himself to work to master the first two years' courses which included in 1825-26, Blair's *Lectures*, Lowth's *English Grammar*, and Adam's *Roman Antiquities*.⁴ Besides these studies, he began a study of Greek, Latin, Italian, and Spanish, which resulted in a lifelong love for the languages.

He passed the examination, but upon trying to enroll in the junior class, was told to pay tuition for the freshman and sophomore years. This he could not or would not do, feeling that the regulation was an unjust and arbitrary exercise of authority which disregarded the fact that he had passed the necessary examination.⁵ After having rebelled against the Harvard regulations — demonstrating a type of independence which characterized his entire life — he tried to settle down as a teacher in New England, but found no satisfaction in this work. His attention was caught presently by the opportunities opening up in the West; his romantic nature asserted itself, and he set out on March 10, 1831, to seek his fortunes on the frontier.

Thus, at the age of twenty-two, Albert Pike left New England, joined a trading party at St. Louis, and arrived at Santa Fé in December. Ten months later, having failed to better his fortunes, he turned eastward, coming to Fort Smith, Arkansas, in December, 1832. For about a year he organized and taught schools at Van Buren and at Little Piney, and now and then sent cantos of his poem *Los*

²For a critical study of Albert Pike, see Susan B. Riley, "The Life and Works of Albert Pike to 1860," doctoral dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers.

³*Autobiography*, 2.

⁴*President's Annual Report*, 1826-1826, 25-26.

⁵Pike mentioned this incidentally many times in his writings. In an editorial referring to his treatment at Harvard he wrote: "She refused to permit us to enter there in the Junior Class, unless we would pay, out of our slender earnings as teacher of a common school, the tuition fees of the two preceding years. . . . We owe her as little as Paul Jones owed to Scotland." *Memphis Appeal*, March 12, 1867.

Tiempos⁶ to *The Arkansas Advocate*, which were printed, unsigned, in March, August, and September, 1833. Robert Crittenden was at that time stumping the Territory as a congressional candidate. He met Pike while he was teaching at Little Piney, found that he was a Whig, and secured for him a position as assistant editor of the *Advocate*, a Whig newspaper which Crittenden had been instrumental in establishing at Little Rock.⁷

Two years later, in 1835, Pike became sole editor and owner of the *Advocate*, and continued to edit it until it was combined with *The Times*, another Whig paper, in 1837. Soon, however, he sold the paper and devoted all his energies to law which he had begun to practice in 1834. In 1849, he was admitted to practice before the Supreme Court of the United States, was admitted to the courts of Louisiana as an attorney in 1855, and continued to practice until 1879, even after he left Arkansas.⁸ He was a Captain in the Mexican War and a Brigadier General in the Confederate service. He left Arkansas in December, 1865, and was editor of the *Memphis Appeal* from 1867 until he moved to Washington, D. C., in 1868. There he gradually relinquished his law practice and became Grand Commander, in the office of the Temple of the Supreme Council of the 33rd Degree, Ancient and Accepted Scottish Rite, for the Southern Jurisdiction. All his life he had been a copious writer and student of many languages. After he was sixty years old he studied Sanskrit and translated into English such works of the ancient eastern literature as *The Rig-Veda*, *Zend-Avesta*, and *Kabbala*. He died April 2, 1891.

THE LOGICAL APPEAL OF HIS IDEAS

Slavery and States' Rights

It is noteworthy, in connection with Pike's interest in oratory, that one of his first affiliations outside of his regular work as assistant editor of the *Advocate* was with the Little Rock Debating Society. He had been in Arkansas less than a year, when, in 1834,

⁶Riley, "Life and Works of Albert Pike to 1860," 185.

⁷*Ibid.*, 188.

⁸For an estimate of Pike as a lawyer, see Charles Summer Lobinger, "Albert Pike The Comparative Lawyer," *American Law Review*, 61 (1927), 388-409.

he was invited to deliver the Fourth of July oration before that society. The central theme of his oration was national patriotism. After commenting that twelve million people on that birthday of independence "listen to the accents of the Orator, and by the intense feeling of their own hearts, to make up for his every deficiency,"⁹ he pointed to the "unequaled daring" of our fathers in securing our liberty, and stated that "The Constitution which they framed, still stands, as the noblest work of the power of the human intellect." He then warned his audience:

We ourselves are the moulders and fabricators of our own destiny. . . . Let us look to ourselves in time, and see that we fall not as many a nation has fallen before us — for, justly as we may congratulate ourselves on our advantages, it may not be denied, and it would ill become me to conceal, that the times wear a perilous and dangerous aspect.

The remainder of the speech, its greater part, dealt with the likelihood and terror of a civil war. The threat of disunion was very real in 1834. South Carolina, six years before, had declared "null and void" a tariff law of the Congress. Webster and Hayne in their debates of 1830 brought to a sharp focus the old, but as yet unsettled issue of the central government versus the states. As early as 1819, during debates over permitting slavery to enter Missouri, disunion was openly talked.

Notwithstanding the fact that Pike spoke in a Southern state, he showed little if any sympathy for sectional patriotism:

It is the fault of all parties — it is the fault of human nature — of our weaknesses and frailty — that the elements of disunion are working secretly and darkly in our land — that the dragon Anarchy is stirring himself unquietly, where he lies pressed down by mountains — that the earthquake is already moaning in his caves. It cannot be denied that at this day and hour we are almost ripe for war. . . .

Pike then drew a vivid picture of the horrors a civil war would bring, and, giving full reign to his youthful exuberance prophesied, "Civil war may threaten, but it will not come; the storm may spread

⁹Oration delivered before the Little Rock Debating Society, July 4, 1834, by Albert Pike (Published by request of the society), *Little Rock Arkansas Advocate*, July 18, 1834.

to the zenith, but it will pass away, and leave the sky as clear and cloudless as before."

It is evident from this statement that Pike must have felt that his optimism might be overriding his better judgment, for immediately after his prophesy that civil war would not come he added:

But notwithstanding this confidence, it becomes us, it is our duty, to take every means in our power to provide against an event so dreadful; to understand and to teach the people the full value of their privileges; to guard against encroachments; to ensure to the coming generation the blessing of education . . . to soften down the rancor of party feeling; and with that magnanimity which becomes us as freemen and equals, to see that our public relations carry no bitterness into our private connections.

Here, in the latter part of the speech, when he warned "to guard against encroachments" and spoke of men as "freemen and equals," Pike, the youth of twenty-three, revealed clues to attitudes which were later to make of him a sectional patriot.

When Pike became sole owner of the *Advocate*, he wrote an editorial April 10, 1836, saying, "We are a citizen of Arkansas for life. Our heart and our hand are with its people, and we commence a new editorial year, with the warm hope that our present connexion may not soon be dissolved." As he came to find the opportunities and the independence which his nature craved, as he married, built a home, and began to raise a family, his mature opinions concerning his own obligations in the sectional struggle began to take form. Fifteen years after his sophomoric oration before the Little Rock Debating Society he said in a speech at Memphis:

The preservation of the Union should be the paramount object, as it is unspeakably the greatest interest of every American. It is only to be preserved and perpetuated by the same course of policy and conduct as has continued to the present time — by a strict and inflexible adherence to the same spirit of compromise and concession which created the constitution and breathes in every line of that wonderful instrument; and by preserving and cherishing in every state and section of the Union, the feeling of State pride and of perfect equality and self respect.¹⁰

¹⁰Remarks of Albert Pike, Before a Meeting of the Citizens of Memphis, November, 1849, *Arkansas State Gazette*, December 13, 1849.

Five years later he stated that compromise and concession on the part of the North were now out of the question and turned his thoughts toward Southern independence, saying at Charleston, "The South ought to be independent of the North in the Union, and not out of it."¹¹ One year later he spoke of complete independence:

God forbid that I should anticipate or foretell a dissolution of this Union. This is an event from which I turn my eyes with horror. . . . But still, the dissolution of the Union is possible; and no one has the right to say that in forty years more it will not happen.¹²

It was six years later, not forty, when "inexorable circumstances" required that Pike take his stand on the secession of Arkansas from the Union. "The real controversy," he said in 1861, "is as old as the Constitution."¹³ The concept of the Union as an association of the people, and the theory of the Union as a compact between the states, "is a difference that cannot be reconciled."

I do not think it was ever possible long to preserve the Union on the theory adopted by Federalism and expounded by Webster. I do not think it was worth preserving on it; and I do not think the theory was true; or that it ever found the least *real* countenance in the constitution, interpreted by the original rules of legal construction.

He believed that a concept of government had been crystallized by the Northern majority into an arbitrary fact that oppressed the Southern minority. As he had rebelled at Harvard against what he had believed was an arbitrary exercise of authority, he now rebelled against what he considered to be an exercise of arbitrary authority on the part of the central government. On May 6, 1861, Pike saw the state of Arkansas, which he had helped to bring into the Union, secede and link itself with the Southern Confederacy.

¹¹*DeBow's Review*, 17 (1854), 211.

¹²*Address on the Southern Pacific Railroad, delivered in the Hall of the House of Representatives of the State of Louisiana*. Feb. 9, 1855 (New Orleans, 1855).

¹³*State or Province? Bond or Free?* (n. p. 1861), 9.

Statehood for Arkansas

The first civic campaign into which Pike directed his energies and the resources of the *Advocate* was that of statehood for Arkansas. At a public meeting of the citizens of Pulaski County, June 13, 1835, at which time Pike made a speech replying to Colonel A. S. Walker, who opposed statehood, he was appointed one of a committee of seven to compose an address to the people of Arkansas advocating statehood for the Territory.¹⁴ He threw himself into its preparation with enthusiasm, expressing his sentiments and those of the committee, in language which for the most part was undoubtedly of his own composition.

The central theme which ran through the address was for a greater freedom than was possible under territorial government:

The causes which produced the struggle for American Liberty, and induced the patriots of '76 to throw off the bondage of British oppression, can be distinguished by name only, from those which should induce the citizens, the free and independent people of Arkansas, to claim the right of emerging from Territorial darkness, into the light of civil liberty and national independence.

He then pointed out that Arkansas Territory, with a population of not less than 60,000 and with not more than 7,000 or 8,000 slaves, was entitled to a vote on the floor of Congress, and that with three million acres of taxable land, revenues of at least \$30,000 could be raised. "The expense of an economical State Government, per year, cannot well be more than \$25,000, which is over the estimate made by the Hot Springs committee." The address ended with a pointed plea aimed at those who argue against statehood:

Poor indeed is the plea of poverty, when liberty and man's dearest rights are at stake. Craven-hearted and unworthy American must he be who would be contented to remain a bondman and hewer of wood to escape paying the paltry pittance of twice his present tax.¹⁵

Arkansas, a territory since July 4, 1819, became the twenty-fifth state, June 15, 1836.

¹⁴ *Arkansas State Gazette*, June 16, 1835.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*

Politics

Pike, a Whig in political beliefs, stood little chance to hold political offices in Arkansas or in Congress had he so desired; nevertheless, he took an active part in several of the Whig campaigns, but never in his own behalf as a candidate for office. He scorned the tactics of politicians:

Every political contest should be a contest of principles and not for the success of particular favorites; and the people should always suspect those who avoid and evade a candid and open exposition of those principles, by empty and vapid boastings of patriotism and love for the people — and arrogant and unmeaning parade of high sounding appellations — and an exclusive claim to the titles of democrats and republicans. . . . The science of government is the science of benefitting and blessing the people. To recriminate and revile is the advocacy of the demagogue and the incendiary.¹⁶

After the decline of the Whig party about 1852, Pike affiliated with the American or Know-Nothing Party and was one of its chief organizers in Arkansas where it elected a full state ticket in 1854. In 1855 he was elected president of the State Council and delivered an address at the first annual session on April 30.¹⁷ He attended the national conventions of the party at Philadelphia in June, 1855, and February, 1856, and at the latter was on the nominating committee. Debate grew heated over the twelfth article of the June platform which stated that "The existing laws on the subject of slavery ought to be abided by and maintained . . . and that there ought to be no further legislation by Congress on the subject." Many wanted to strike out this article or modify it, but Pike took a strong stand. Of this speech he said:

I addressed the meeting and concluded by moving that in case the twelfth article were stricken out or materially modified, we should withdraw in a body from the hall. . . . The motion was carried without opposition, and the result hailed with nine cheers. . . . The passage of that resolution . . . was the proudest moment of my life. I

¹⁶Whig Committee Address To the People of Arkansas, Feb. 21, 1838 (Little Rock, 1838).

¹⁷Address by the President of the State Council of Arkansas, delivered at the first annual session on the 30th April, 1855 (Little Rock, 1855).

thought I saw rising at once a new, conservative, national, American party, without secrecy, without religious tests, with which all conservatives everywhere could unite, and in which, if defeated, we should fall like gentlemen, true to the South and the Union.¹⁸

The next day, however, many of the delegates who had promised to stand by Pike's resolution failed to do so, and the subject of slavery was carefully avoided in the new platform. Pike resigned as a delegate, saying:

I blame and arraign no one. My only object is to be *rectus in curia* myself. I cannot stand on the new platform. . . . I therefore request you to accept my resignation as delegate to the National Council and Nominating Convention. And in surrendering into your hands the last political trust with which I ever intend to be clothed. . . . I decline any affiliation or connection with those who repudiate that Article, and the principles, essential, in my opinion, to the salvation of the Union, which it contains.¹⁹

Southern Pacific Railroad

Pike's greatest achievement in speechmaking was the series he made in support of a proposed Southern Pacific Railroad. These speeches were made at commercial conventions at Memphis (1849), Charleston (1854), New Orleans (1852 and 1855), and Savannah (1856), and before the Louisiana State Legislature (1855). By the time he began these several speeches he was sure in his own mind that the South should stir itself to some kind of concerted action. He urged that this action take the form of economic development so the South could become as nearly equal to the North as possible, and felt that one of the best ways to achieve strength was to build a railroad from the South Atlantic seaboard through the Southern states to the Mississippi, and from thence through the West to the Pacific, following "about 32 degrees parallel of latitude."

At the time Pike made his first speech in this series, only about 6,000 miles of railway existed in the country, but during the years 1848-1858, the decade in which he made his speeches, railroad mileage increased about 16,500 miles. In 1853 the first Northern railway reached Chicago. In 1850 Southern railways extended westward from

¹⁸Allsopp, *Albert Pike*, 325.

¹⁹*Ibid.*, 326.

Charleston and Savannah to Atlanta, terminating at the Tennessee River near the northwestern border of Georgia. The discovery of gold in California had intensified the interest in building railroads beyond the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers into the far west.

This great development was going on amidst the growing sectional differences between the North and the South over slavery. "In the present attitude of the Pacific railroad plan," Pike said at Memphis, "it will inevitably become a sectional question. It is useless, worse than absurd for men to prate about patriotism and national feeling, in connection with it."²⁰ He said the North would not support it if it originated in slave states.

Nor would the South vote for any road running exclusively from the free States through free Territory. I would cut off my right arm before I would do so. I would do so, not because I am wanting in patriotism or national feeling, but because I believe that the greatest injury, beyond all comparison, which could be done to the country, would be to place such a road so as to confer its benefits exclusively on one or the other sections of the country.

He then contended, in keeping with the general government's policy of bringing in one free state for every slave state, that:

It is the first and highest duty of government to stretch an iron arm across the continent, which with its fibers radiating at the shoulder from different points on the Atlantic shall fasten a tenacious grasp on the great Western possessions, and grapple them to us, as with hooks of steel. Such a road will be like a great artery, through which the pulsations of the national heart will send the life-blood to the extremities of the Union.

By 1854, when Pike attended the commercial convention at Charleston, at which thirteen states were represented by 857 delegates, he was known as a leader in the southern railroad movement. He was chairman of the Pacific Railroad Committee and a member of the Committee on Resolutions. His speeches before the convention made tremendous impressions upon his audiences and established him as one of the South's outstanding leaders in the Southern Pacific Railway movement. He had moved forward in his thinking since his speech at Memphis six years before, and, instead of advo-

²⁰*Arkansas State Gazette*, Dec. 13, 1849.

cating that the central government should help with two roads, one through the North and one through the South, to join west of Missouri or Arkansas and run thence to the Pacific, he proposed:

The Southern States should confederate together, not by any unlawful confederation, but in legal union, for the purpose of building with their own funds this great Southern highway to the Pacific. (Rapturous applause.) . . . When would there in all the annals of time be a more glorious confederation? (Cheers.) It would not be a confederation to carry on war, but to turn the commerce of the world across that portion of the country which we inherit.²¹

This was his proposal, and concerning it he said in his last Charleston speech, "I want it to be a sort of declaration of independence on the part of the South."²²

Pike's Charleston speech had so established him as a speaker that he was called upon to speak in succeeding commercial conventions at New Orleans and Savannah, and before the House of Representatives in Louisiana. In all these speeches he continued to develop his plan that the Southern states should work together to build the road, but in each succeeding speech he assumed more and more of a burden of persuasion in attempting to stir the South to action. Before the Legislature at Baton Rouge he declared:

Why, sir, should the fourteen Southern states hesitate to engage in that which it is infinitely easier for them to do, than it has been for Massachusetts and Georgia to build the network of railroads with which their surfaces are covered? The autocrat of Russia is laying down the rails from St. Petersburg, by Moscow, to the more genial regions of the Black Sea; England, France, The Emperor of Austria, the King of Prussia — every crowned head in Europe — raising the finger only, creates the iron ways that make his realm prosperous. Can we republicans not do as much? Shame on us, if the old kings of Egypt could build up the useless pyramids, with incalculable expenditure of treasure, labor and life, to perpetuate the remembrance of their folly to all future ages, and we cannot connect ourselves with our sister state, stretching out her hands to us from the shores of the Pacific! . . .

To you, gentlemen, I now desire to commit this matter. I beg you, in the name of your state, and of every Southern state; I beg you in the name of your children, your country, and the common interest

²¹*DeBow's Review* 17 (1854), 211-212.

²²*Ibid.*, 505.

of universal humanity, to give it your sanction, and the vast moral influence of your approval. . . .

I commit the subject to you with entire confidence. I feel like a feeble dwarf who, with his trowel, labors to build up a mighty monument, fit only to be undertaken by giants. I gladly surrender it to you; and be you sure that if you act promptly and efficiently in regard to it, you will richly deserve that along the road, when it shall have been built, a line of monuments shall be reared, stretching like huge sentinels from the Mississippi to the Pacific, each bearing the name of one who, by his voice and vote, aided in embodying in iron this most magnificent idea of the age, and thereby making the South, of which we are all so proud, and whose honor and dignity are so dear to us, prosperous, united, independent, and secure against the arms and enmity of the world.²³

On Education

Pike received little formal schooling, but he possessed an innate intellectual curiosity which made a search for knowledge a lifelong pursuit. He had until his dying day the instincts of the scholar. He was an omnivorous reader, and loved to write. As an editor and as a speaker he emphasized the need and virtues of education.

In a commencement address at Little Rock in 1852, he defined learning as "The real development of the human soul," obtained through observation, information, and reflection. Speaking out of his own experiences as student and teacher he stated that the time he had spent in studying Greek was "to a great degree lost and wasted," while Latin which "forms the basis of Italian, French and Spanish, and may be considered a living language" should be "thoroughly studied." For "no man can consider himself at the present day as having received a liberal education, who has not traveled beyond the boundaries of his own language." He also placed particular emphasis upon "English learning and letters. . . . From it the youth will imbibe a sturdy Saxon feeling of upright independence, a firmness of will and determination, a manly vigor, a fine sense of honor, which will strengthen and enlarge his mind."

He believed that mastery of ideas is the only sound approach to verbal expression. "I can furnish no recipe," he said, "no learning-made-easy formula, for manufacturing good writers and speakers with ease and expedition."

²³Allsopp, *Albert Pike*, 365-367.

Grammar, Rhetoric and Logic are to some extent useful; but by mere study of them no person ever became a good writer, or an eloquent, or even correct speaker. We learn to write well and grammatically, by reading books well and grammatically written; and it is, above all, to be remembered that the first great and indispensable requisite to writing and speaking well, is to accumulate a sufficient stock of ideas.²⁴

ORGANIZATIONAL AND LOGICAL APPEAL

Pike's speeches show evidence of careful planning. Many of them were written in full and published later as pamphlets, or by newspapers and journals. His craftsmanship followed more closely the simple organization of introduction, body, conclusion rather than a more elaborate classic formula: exordium, statement of facts, proof, and peroration. Sometimes large sections of his speeches were devoted to refutation.

His introductions were comparatively short. The methods most frequently used were personal references, references to the audience, and references to the general subject with a delineation of the specific theme. Occasionally he used an historical approach.

He divided the body of his speeches into from two to four main points, centered about key words such as "advantages," "disadvantages," or, as in some of his railroad speeches, the embodying of key words in parallel statements as: The road *can* be built, it *ought* to be built, it *shall* be built, *where* and *how* it could be built.

Formal summaries of points at the end of speeches were not used by Pike. His speeches ended, instead, with suggestions and pleas for action, and many times he mentioned specific rewards which would come to those who would follow his suggestions. Pike was conscientious in his search for the facts. Time and again he exhorted his listeners to see and to face conditions as they are, not as they would wish them to be. "The lion in the path," he warned, "will be there, whether we see him or not; and to close our eyes will be only to make ourselves more completely defenceless."²⁵ His inductive processes, therefore, abound in the use of specific contemporary references. He had a trenchant, also, for classical and literary illusions.

²⁴To the Young Ladies of the Tulip Female Seminary, and Cadets of the Arkansas Military Institute, at Tulip (Little Rock, 1852).

²⁵Arkansas State Gazette, Dec. 13, 1849.

These he tended to accumulate in great numbers in sections of his speeches, which to the modern ear make these erudite and ostentatious. He used very little statistical data, and seldom quoted directly from contemporary authorities. He used analogies sparingly, drawing them almost entirely from history.

His deductive reasoning processes were carefully worked out and presented in long and sometimes complex chains of reasoning. At times he would develop two or more related propositions simultaneously, passing back and forth among them until the conclusion he desired emerged.

Refutation appeared frequently. On occasion he would attack the character of the man as well as his statements, but these occasions were rare, and his attitudes were never venomous. Usually he refuted by pointing out where he considered the opposing argument to be unsound or untenable; at times he used *reductio ad absurdum*.

ETHICAL APPEAL

Pike was a man who impressed his audiences favorably, both by his attitudes and his physical appearance. He was tall, powerful, looked every inch the ideal philosopher and statesman, was reserved, dignified yet affable, and ever commanded interest and attention by his platform presence. Col. J. N. Smithee reports that at a dinner given in his honor at New Orleans: "When he was introduced to speak, as usual, the guests were struck with admiration at his noble and commanding appearance, and charmed by his affable and courteous demeanor,—so much so that he was lionized during his stay in that city."²⁶ Among his friends at Washington he was known as "The Fine Arkansas Gentleman."

As one reads Pike's speeches, he feels a statesman is speaking. He was always frank, wholehearted, and scorned the petty practices and artifices of the demagogue. In speech after speech Pike would use such statements as: "The true statesman does not form and act upon theory which disregards existing circumstances," or "The true statesman does not look to find all men patriots."

Despite the favorable impressions which Pike's commanding presence and straightforward attitudes created upon his audiences, his

²⁶Allsopp, *Albert Pike*, 293.

speeches are marred to an appreciable extent for the modern reader by evidences of self-consciousness and affectation which show up particularly in his apologies and panegyrics to the ladies.

Pike used the apology consistently in his speeches, pointing out that he was but a common man, that he had no political office to add luster and dignity to his ideas, no vested interest to sway him, no gifts of oratory or arts of the rhetorician to sway the passions, and that any number of men were more worthy to speak on the subject than he. In his speech before the Louisiana House of Representatives he began:

I do not know where else it may be my fate to speak, or what other Assembly to address before I die, but I am sure that, however numerous, dignified and intelligent any audience may be that shall hereafter hear me, I shall never feel so highly honored, so deeply embarrassed, so anxious to succeed, and yet so distrustful of myself, as I am tonight. Honored by a courtesy and compliment on your part, wholly unexpected, unusual and undeserved; embarrassed, because I feel that expectations are entertained by you that cannot but be disappointed; anxious to succeed, because the subject is one in which, not only this state, but my own, and the whole great South — you and I, and all of us, and our children, are deeply interested; and distrustful of myself, because I know my own inability to deal with it in a fit and proper manner. I would fain have had this task committed to worthier hands.²⁷

This type of apology, used so frequently, cannot be interpreted as arising out of modesty alone; instead it seems to have been a conscious technique used to center attention upon the authority of his ideas, rather than upon any arbitrary authority which his name or reputation might possess to cause people to accept his points of view.

Another gesture of goodwill used consistently by Pike was the appeal to the feminine sector of his audiences. These panegyrics are highly amusing to the modern reader, but brought enthusiastic ovations from the ladies and not infrequently showers of flowers upon him from the balconies where they sat. By 1855, Pike's gallant flattery flagged slightly from that of earlier occasions when at New Orleans he said:

²⁷*Ibid.*, 359.

Moreover, sir, I am admonished by the presence of those new delegates to this convention, so beautifully addressed to you

"Whose eyes do brighten like the star that shook
Between the palms of Paradise,"

that, while their smiles are the highest incentive to patriotic endeavor, and the most glorious reward that can be bestowed upon us for our exertions in the cause of our country, the array of beauty intimidates as much as it encourages the speaker.²⁸

Pike changed in some of his fundamental beliefs from the time of his earliest speeches to his later ones. His speech before the Little Rock Debating Society in 1834 showed him to have been a strong nationalist. At that time he was twenty-three years old. At forty his speeches reveal him to be a confirmed Southern patriot. Such a change might lead to the assumption that he had no principles or confirmed convictions. If he were not sincere, and if he lived by the principle of expediency in his beliefs, such evidence does not exist in his speeches after he espoused the Southern point of view. All of them are marked by a firm conviction that the Southern position was justifiable.

EMOTIONAL APPEAL

Pike was articulate about what he considered to be the proper use of emotional appeals. He scorned what he called the "arts of the rhetorician" and "bastard species" of oratory so frequently used by the politician. Of his own speechmaking he said in later life: "I never consider myself an orator: I thought I could make a strong argument, but never imagined I was eloquent."²⁹

That Pike was a persuasive speaker cannot be denied. He made powerful appeals to pride, self-respect, self-control, courage, and honor. He knew how the typical Southerner felt and was able to crystallize these sentiments. Many of the reviewers of his speeches included such interpolations as "Great applause," "Renewed applause," "Continued applause," "Wild applause," "Rapturous applause," and at the Savannah convention he "Was loudly called for" to make a speech.

Strong statements of his own personal feelings undoubtedly were

²⁸ *DeBow's Review* 18 (1855), 521.

²⁹ *Autobiography*, 83.

a factor in exciting his audiences. At Memphis when speaking about voting for a railroad which would run through the North he cried: "I would cut off my right arm before I would do so."³⁰ Wender reported that at Savannah Pike said, "He would suffer himself to be torn by wild horses before he would justify the renewal of the African slave trade and he would be equally ready to suffer that fate before he would admit that slavery itself was wrong."³¹ For such statements Wender called him "the emotive Mr. Pike."³²

Pike seldom used humor. On those few occasions when he did, its use grew directly out of the subject matter. At Little Rock he said:

I recollect, at a political convention once, in Tennessee, I saw a young lady wearing as a motto on the badge of her ribbon, "*A Whig or no husband*"; and it seems to me, considering the importance of internal improvement to the youth of Arkansas, that you, young ladies, may well adopt as your motto, "*an internal improvement man or no husband*." I recommend the suggestion to your favorable consideration.³³

STYLE AND DELIVERY

Pike's oral style was literary and ponderous. He was a man without outstanding creative imagination, albeit a person who had read widely and remembered well. His sentences were long, very carefully phrased, and with variety in structure. Although his thought processes were complex and often slowed down by exuberant diction, there was clearness of meaning, a vitality, and an onward flowing rhythm which created suspense.

His speeches abounded in epigrammatic statements; at times he became truly eloquent. A part of his New Orleans speech, in which he lauded great ideas as the motive power which moulds the destinies of men and of nations, has been included by Brewer in his *The*

³⁰*Arkansas State Gazette*, Dec. 13, 1949.

³¹Herbert Wender, *Southern Commercial Conventions, 1837-1859* (Baltimore, 1930), 178.

³²*Ibid.*, 128.

³³"Address of A. Pike, Esq. Before the Rail Road Convention, at Little Rock, Arkansas, July 6, 1852," *Arkansas State Gazette and Democrat*, July 30, 1852.

*World's Best Orations.*³⁴ During his address to the people of Arkansas on secession he spoke with wisdom and eloquence, saying:

Whatever we may have thought or wished, Fate has been too strong for us; the die is cast, and the act *done*. The Past is no longer ours. The Present and the Future belong to us. It is profitless to inquire who are to blame for the present condition of affairs, or to disclaim responsibility on our individual parts. Inexorable circumstances ever mould our destinies, and of these the acts of other men are a great part. It is the condition of human life that their acts should affect us potently for weal or woe. We have now only to accept the responsibility, look the Present steadily in the face, and take precautions and make provisions for the Future.³⁵

Pike's delivery is best summed up by a statement made by Robert Morris, who heard him speak at Hartford, Connecticut, in 1857:

Keen-eyed, unobtrusive. Sits for hours with a downward look, abstracted, slightly scornful. Rises slowly, and catches the officer's attention with difficulty. A sort of man whom "when found, you make a note on." Conceals his hands in his pockets, throws back a ponderous head and shoulders, and begins.

His sentences are long, well-constructed, neatly-fashioned, and call forth a response "just so!" from the hearer. Voice not over-musical, manner not so fervid as might be expected from the crack lawyer of Arkansas — in fact, rather sluggish.

The man evidently believes what he says. He makes no allusions to usage, which in debate he quite disregards; but is all the safer on constitutional questions, wherein verily he is *petros*, a rock. Lawyer-fashion he posts himself well up on his subject.

He particularly abhors despotism and goes to the extreme of *mobism* in preference to tyranny on the part of a presiding officer. He speaks too seldom; dresses, walks and talks with perfect nonchalance, and acts in all things with perfect independence.³⁶

ESTIMATE OF HIS SPEAKING

Albert Pike became, during the two decades between 1840 and 1860, a speech-maker who was well-known throughout the South and the entire country. He had far more than ordinary ability as an

³⁴David Josiah Brewer, *The World's Best Oration*, 10 vols. (St. Louis, 1900), X, 3954.

³⁵*State or Province? Bond or Free?*, 36.

³⁶Quoted in Allsopp, *Albert Pike*, 103.

orator, for he moved three great commercial conventions and the House of Representatives of Louisiana to approve his resolutions for the building of a Southern Pacific Railroad, a road which was eventually constructed.

He was a self-made orator who cultivated oratory not so much as an art, but as a tool, and he made of it a very effective tool for commanding the attention and the actions of his listeners. He was a gentleman of the Old South and an orator of the old school, but when one hastens to classify his speechmaking as the oratory of a romanticist or a sentimentalist, he is brought face to face with Pike the realist. His specific topics are, of course, not timely now, but there is much of universal truth and so much of the dynamic personality of Albert Pike in his speeches that the modern reader cannot fail to feel his influence. John Trotwood Moore compared Pike with Seargent S. Prentiss, saying they were "two speakers who are the most remarkable men in the entire history of this country."³⁷

³⁷John Trotwood Moore, *Tennessee, The Volunteer State* (Nashville, 1923), 423.

AN EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN FOR DETERMINING INDUCED CHANGES IN THE ATTITUDES OF OTHERS

HARVEY CROMWELL*

This article is concerned with an experimental design for determining the effect on existing attitudes of an experimental factor. It is believed the use of the recommended procedure will provide more accurate information for those interested in studying shifts-in-attitude than may be obtained with the more common standard research designs.

INTRODUCTION

The history of experimental procedures for studying the effect of an experimental factor on the attitude of others has been presented elsewhere¹ and its review here would be unnecessary duplication. A brief summary regarding the more common research design, however, does seem *apropos*. The common experimental procedure for studies of changes in attitude has included the use of an experimental group which receives controlled treatment and a control group which does not. The procedure has been to give both the experimental and control groups, which have been matched on one or more criteria, a pre-test, using an acceptable attitude scale; subject the experimental group to the experimental factor; and then post-test both the control and experimental groups with the same test used for the pre-test or an equivalent form of it. The control group is used to measure any variable that might be introduced into the experiment, beyond the control of the investigator, during the time intervening between the beginning and the conclusion of the experiment. Under such conditions the difference between the reactions of the experimental and

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¹Robert M. Gagné, Harriet Foster, and Miriam E. Crowley, "The Measurement of Transfer of Training," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLV (Mar., 1948), 97-130; Richard L. Solomon, "An Extension of Control Group Design," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLVI (Mar., 1949), 137-140; Robert S. Woodworth, *Experimental Psychology*, (New York, 1938), 178-181.

control groups is measured to determine the effect of the experimental factor.

Solomon² has introduced an interesting experimental procedure, using two or more control groups, which he states reduces any "interaction" effects the pre-test may have on the members of the experimental group. Solomon's procedure, however, does not prohibit the use of the experimental design to be presented in this article. Actually, if his procedure eliminates any possible effects of the pre-test on the final data, the inclusion of his control group design should further increase the validity and reliability of the final data.

THE EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

In a recent experimental investigation, the writer³ employed an experimental design based on the use of a control group and statistical procedures which to his knowledge had not been used previously by those interested in shifts-of-attitude. In this experiment, there was no appreciable delay between the pre-test, the presentation of the experimental factor, and the post-test. It was thus not necessary to use a control group in the manner described above; instead, the members of the control group were given the pre- and post-attitude tests in consecutive order and the results obtained were used to determine the reliability of the two forms of the attitude test, to correct for any systematic differences in scale values that might exist between the two forms for the attitude of the subjects toward the experimental factor, and for adjusting population variances that might exist between the groups of subjects used in the experiment.

Establishing reliability. Although the reliability of the two forms of an attitude scale have usually been established by the originator of the scale, that reliability may vary with the attitude or experimental factor to be tested in a specific investigation. For example, the reliability of the two forms of the Thomas Scale for Measuring Attitude Toward Any Proposed Social Action (a Thurstone type

²Solomon, *op. cit.*, 140-149.

³Harvey Cromwell, "The Relative Effect on Audience Attitude of the First Versus the Second Argumentative Speech of a Series," Ph.D. dissertation, Purdue University (1949).

scale) has been shown to vary as follows: Thomas⁴ found the reliability of the scale as a test of attitude toward Communism to be .73 and .91 for Compulsory Military Training; Cromwell⁵ found the reliability to be .88 for Required Arbitration of Labor Disputes and .95 for National Medicine; and Kunkel and Cromwell⁶ found the reliability to be .88 for Federal Aid to Education. While it is true the reliability in each case was sufficiently high, the variance does indicate, as a policy of caution, the desirability of determining the reliability of the two forms of the attitude scale used for the specific experimental factor or attitude to be studied. Data for this purpose may be obtained by having the members of the control group complete both forms of the attitude scale, in consecutive order, and the reliability determined by testing the results by the equivalent-forms method (see any statistical textbook for procedure). While the above pertains more directly to the Thurstone type attitude scale, Monroe⁷ has presented a method of determining the statistical reliability and validity of the shift-of-opinion ballot.

The reliability coefficient obtained by the equivalent-forms method relates only to the equivalence of the two forms; it does not inform the investigator about the equivalence of the members of the experimental and control groups marking those forms, or how many shifts-in-attitude of the subjects need to be pooled to provide a reliability index of the effectiveness of the experimental factor interposed between the two forms of the attitude scale. This is a test of reliability that is either often overlooked by investigators or is based on assumptions. The use of either method raises a question of doubt regarding the results of the experimental study. For example, Thomp-

⁴Dorothy M. Thomas Baines, "The Construction and Evaluation of a Scale for Measuring Attitude Toward Any Proposed Social Action," *Studies in Higher Education*, XXXI, *Bulletins of Purdue University*, XXXVII, No. 4 (1936), 252-258.

⁵Cromwell, *op. cit.*, 39-40.

⁶Richard Kunkel and Harvey Cromwell, "The Effect on Audience Attitude of Repeating Oral Propaganda," unpublished study conducted at Purdue University (1949).

⁷Alan H. Monroe, "The Statistical Reliability and Validity of the Shift-of-Opinion Ballot," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXIII (Dec., 1937), 577-585.

son⁸ offers the following as a suitable test for the reliability of the results he obtained:

A final bearing upon reliability is the stability of an average. Numerous experiments, both within and outside the field of speech, indicate that the mean of a number of independent estimates is highly reliable. In the judging of lifted weights, Gordon found that the reliability of one rater was .41; . . . of twenty .86; of fifty .94. Eysenck, experimenting with nine hundred persons who were ranking twelve uncolored pictures in the order of preference, found these reliabilities for pooled evaluations: for one person, .47; . . . for twenty .94. . . . Monroe, Remmers, and Lyle found that the judgments of a speaking performance had a reliability of .30 for one student and .90 for twenty. Since the means in the present experiment are based upon twenty-five or more scores, it seems likely that they possess a high degree of reliability.

No one will question the bearing of the stability of an average upon reliability; but it is quite difficult to determine how lifting weights, ranking uncolored pictures, and judgments for speaking performances may be pooled in such a way as to conclude that the pooling of a minimum of twenty-five scores recorded on a Likert scale will give a high reliability for testing the attitude of college students toward Thomas Dewey. One wonders why Thompson did not establish the reliability for his subjects and experimental factors?

A test for determining the number of pooled judgments needed for satisfactory reliability may be obtained by correlating the sum of the differences in scores (before and after the interposed experimental factor) of N judgments with the sum of the differences in scores (before and after the interposed experimental factor) of N other judgments.⁹

⁸Wayne N. Thompson, "A Study of the Attitude of College Students Toward Thomas E. Dewey Before and After Hearing Him Speak," *Speech Monographs*, XVI No. 1 (1949), 127.

⁹Edward L. Clark, "Spearman-Brown Formula Applied to Ratings of Personality Traits," *Journal Educational Psychology*, XXVI (Oct., 1935), 552-553; Alan H. Monroe, "The Measurement and Analysis of Audience Reaction to Student Speakers—Studies in Attitude Changes," *Studies in Higher Education*, XXXII, *Bulletins of Purdue University*, XXXVIII, No. 1a (1937), 18-24; Charles C. Peters and Walter R. Van Voorhis, *Statistical Procedures and Their Mathematical Bases*. (New York, 1940), 191-200.

On the basis of the reliability coefficient thus obtained, it is possible to predict by the Spearman-Brown formula the number of pooled judgments needed to produce satisfactory reliability for the specific experiment.¹⁰ The data for this test of reliability, since it is based on the pre- and post-tests of the members of the experimental group, may be obtained by:

- (1) conducting a preliminary experiment using the same variable controls to be used in the actual experimental study, or
- (2) completing the experimental study and then using the results obtained for determining the reliability of the study.

Of course the first procedure is the more desirable in that the investigator can predetermine the number of pooled judgments (scores) required for satisfactory reliability, if, however, a preliminary survey is not practical, the second procedure will, at least, provide information regarding the reliability (equivalence of the members of the experimental group) of the study.

Evaluating the experimental data. Although the two forms of an attitude scale may be shown to have reliability for the experimental factor used in a study, high reliability or even perfect correlation, between the two forms, does not necessarily indicate identity of scale values. Thus one form might be systematically higher or lower than the other. Lull¹¹ found this condition to exist between the two forms of a Thurstone type scale for measuring attitude toward State Medicine and found it necessary to apply a compensating factor to the results of his study to offset the effect of the discrepancy between the two forms. Cromwell¹² also found a similar condition to exist between the two forms of the Thomas Attitude Scale.

Peters and Van Voorhis¹³ present a technique that may be used to hold constant any systematic residuals inherent in an attitude scale. This technique is based on the scores of the control group and is one

¹⁰Monroe, "The Measurement and Analysis of Audience Reaction to Student Speakers—Studies in Attitude Changes," 20-22; Hermann H. Remmers, "The Equivalence of Judgments to Test Items in the Sense of the Spearman-Brown Formula," *Journal Educational Psychology*, XXII (Jan., 1931), 66-71.

¹¹Paul E. Lull, "The Effectiveness of Humor in Persuasive Speeches," *Speech Monographs*, VII (1940), 31.

¹²Cromwell, *op. cit.*, 42-44.

¹³Peters and Van Voorhis, *op. cit.*, 463-465.

of predicting for each member of the experimental group the score he would be expected to make in case the experimental factor had no differential effect as well as reducing to a minimum the discrepancies between the initial and final scores. The equation for determining this predicted score for each member of the experimental group is

$$\text{Predicted score} = rAB \frac{\bar{OB}}{\bar{OA}} (A_e) + (M_B - rAB \frac{\bar{OB}}{\bar{OA}} M_A)$$

where rAB is the coefficient of correlation between the initial score A and the final score B recorded by the members of the control group, M_B is the mean of the final scores of the control group, M_A is the mean of the initial scores of the control group, and \bar{OA} and \bar{OB} are the standard deviations of the respective scores, and A_e is the initial (pre-test) score of the respective members of the experimental group.

With this formula, a predicted score may be determined for each initial score recorded by the members of the experimental group. Thus, instead of taking the difference obtained between the pre- and post-test scores as indicating the shift in attitude procured in the members of the experimental group, the difference between the predicted score and the final (post-test) score is used to indicate the shift in attitude procured.

Evaluating the differences. Having found differences, the next task is that of considering their importance. Are they large enough to claim much attention? Are they statistically significant? We shall consider two methods, involving the use of the control group scores, that may be used for evaluating the obtained differences. One method of testing the significance of the difference obtained is based on the standard error of the difference of the mean shift in the attitude of the members of the experimental group. The predicted score, as obtained above, permits the use of a *general* formula for the standard error of the difference of the means which according to Peters and Van Voorhis¹⁴ is

really more accurate than the conventional matched-group technique because it shows what would be the expected difference if

¹⁴*Ibid.*, 467.

the groups were perfectly matched, as well as the reliability of the difference.

This formula also compensates for population variance, is not affected by differing N's for the experimental and control groups, and adjusts for any differences that may exist between the mean of the matching scores of the experimental group and that of the control group. Since it is based on principles similar to Fisher's covariance technique,¹⁵ it may be a partial answer to Solomon's statement, "It seems clear that more sophisticated statistical procedures, such as an adaptation of the analysis of covariance, may enhance the evaluation of research results."¹⁶ Peters and Van Voorhis' general formula¹⁷ is

$$\text{Standard error of the diff.} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2 B_c (1-r^2 A_c B_c)}{N_c - 1} + \frac{\sigma^2 B_e - B_p}{N_e - 1} - \frac{(A_c - A_e)^2 \sigma^2 B_c (1-r^2 A_c B_c)}{(N_c - 1) \sigma^2 A_e}}$$

where A_c is the mean of the initial score of the control group, B_c is the mean of the final score of the control group, rA_cB_c is the coefficient of reliability of the initial and final scores of the control group, N_c is the number of subjects in the control group, N_e is the number of subjects in the experimental group, A_e is the mean of the initial scores of the experimental group, B_e is the mean of the final scores of the experimental group, and B_p is the predicted scores for the experimental group.¹⁸

A second method, based on the control group scores, for evaluating the significance of data procured is that of determining the per cent of individual members of the experimental group who made a significant shift in attitude. In order to determine the per cent of the individual members of the experimental group who made a significant shift in attitude, it is necessary to analyze the shifts procured by using an index that will differentiate between those shifts in attitude due to chance and those that may not be attributed to chance. The

¹⁵*Ibid.*, 463.

¹⁶Solomon, *op. cit.*, 146.

¹⁷Peters and Van Voorhis, *op. cit.*, 465.

¹⁸Although the writer employed the general formula in a study of the immediate effect on the attitude of the members of the experimental group of the experimental factor, the formula is applicable to studies designed to determine the delayed effect of the experimental factor.

standard error of estimate is such an index in that it represents the standard error of a single score. Thus, any shift in attitude that is greater than one standard error of estimate will be a significant shift whereas a shift in attitude that is less than one standard error of estimate will be an insignificant shift. The standard error of estimate may be derived from the data of the control group by the formula,

$$\text{Standard error of estimate} = \sigma_B \sqrt{1 - r_{AB}^2}$$

where σ_B represents the standard deviation of the final scores, and r_{AB} the coefficient of reliability of the scores recorded on Form A and Form B of the attitude scale (Form A used for recording the initial score and Form B for recording the final score).

This method of measuring the significance of shift is statistically acceptable as explained and used by Robinson in "An experimental study of the effects of group discussion upon the social attitudes of college students."¹⁹ It is included in this article because it provides a different method for evaluating the effects of the experimental factor. Data obtained from an experimental study that has been evaluated by two different methods provide a double check for the significance or lack of significance of any change in the attitude of the members of the experimental group that may have been procured by the experimental factor.

After the standard error of the difference of the *mean shift* in attitude of the experimental group and the *per cent* of the individual members of the experimental group who made a significant shift in attitude have been determined, the significance ratio (*t*) should be found for each and then interpreted in terms of the probability (*P*), or chances in 100, of getting a difference as large as the one obtained even if the true difference is as low as zero (see statistical table for Normal Probability Integral, oriented in terms of x/σ_x , any basic statistical textbook).

¹⁹Karl F. Robinson, "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Group Discussion Upon the Social Attitudes of College Students," *Speech Monographs*, VIII (1941), 34-57.

CONCLUSION

The experimental design for determining the effect on existing attitudes of an experimental factor which has been presented emphasizes the following:

1. An extended use and importance of the control group.
2. Techniques for determining the reliability of the two forms of an attitude scale and of members of the experimental group marking the scale.
3. The use of a *general* formula for determining the standard error of the difference of the means which provides more refined results and which to the writer's knowledge has not been used previously by those interested in changes-in-attitude.
4. The use of the standard error of estimate as an index for determining the significance or lack of significance of individual shifts in attitude.
5. The use of two methods for evaluating the effect on the attitude of the members of the experimental group of the experimental factor because two methods provide a double check for the significance or lack of significance of the final results obtained from the study.

ROLE OF SPEECH IN DIPLOMACY

ROBERT T. OLIVER*

Whether the tongue is mightier than the atomic bomb is an academic question! Both are weapons being used to the maximum extent of the abilities of those charged with the control of American destinies as they try to hammer out policies that will postpone war if possible, or prevent final destruction when war does come. Those who coin and use phrases are as truly warriors in the two phases of this common battle as are those who manufacture and pilot airplanes.

The speech of diplomacy is subject to strategic considerations as rigorous and complex as those applied to armed forces. Amateurs with words can cause, and on occasion have caused, as much damage and tragic waste as have amateurs in military command. Knowing what to say and how and when to say it is of an importance parallel to knowing what kind of armed force to mobilize and how and when to employ it. Psychological warfare has emerged from theory to practise; total war destroys minds and souls as well as bodies; and "cold" war has proved more effective at less cost than "hot" wars often have.

Teachers of speech can learn much from strategic principles developed by seasoned diplomats, just as these same diplomats might profitably draw much more heavily upon the trained skill of professional speech experts. The speech experts need to sharpen their awareness of the cardinal principle that *speech is effective solely in terms of its total context*. And the diplomats need convincing that both for analyzing the context and for phrasing the speech that will prove effective in terms of it, the experts in speech have a vital service to render.

In the last war speech experts were restricted, largely, to such mechanical roles as (1) teaching clear enunciation; (2) assisting officer-candidates to improve their ability in formulating explanations and commands; and (3) helping to restore normal vocal functioning

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¹For an additional discussion of the problems attempted by Professor Oliver in this paper, see "The Speech of Diplomacy as a Field for Research," *Central States Speech Journal* (March, 1950), I, 24-28.

to battle casualties. Judged in terms of the enormous influence of speech in determining the outcome of the war, the professional teachers of speech were called on for far less of a contribution than they should be able to make.

Now the world is engaged in a clumsy but hasty readjustment from fighting one war to preparing for another. In this readjustment, words are prime movers. When the war may come, the basis upon which it will be fought, and formulation of the factors that will probably determine its outcome are all in a basic sense *problems of speech* and by top policy makers are actually considered as such.

II.

The formation and application of speech policies in this gigantic international field of conflict are in the control of broad categories of officials, all of whom may be grouped loosely within the term "diplomats." Their speech functions are manifold. They involve the careful and considered use of public address, private consultations, and group discussions. They seek to influence the "home" audience, the "enemy" audience, and the "neutral" audience. They must account for fundamental divisions within each of these three groups. They must phrase ideas adequately to meet contingencies all but impossible to foretell. They must speak with just enough authority to carry conviction on the one hand, and to guard against top policy reversals on the other. And they must be well-tailored to the essential context in which they are delivered, with an acute realization that in many subsidiary contexts they will do far more harm than good.

Official spokesmen for governmental policy must avoid "war mongering," or "reckless talk of possibilities of war," on the one hand; and they must just as carefully avoid "peace-mongering," or "reckless talk of the possibilities of peace" on the other. They dare not arouse a war-like spirit which they may be unable to control, support, or direct; and they must equally avoid arousing a determination for peace which will cause unpreparedness to meet potential attacks.

One of their functions must be the creation of stereotyped judgments of world circumstances and events. That is to say, they must seek to develop a total and overwhelming singleness of response to such circumstances as Soviet occupation of north Korea and to such events as the change of government in Czechoslovakia. Yet there are grave dangers in carrying out this function. For instance, (1) the

stereotyped responses they need from the home audience, from the enemy audience, and from the neutral audience may all differ; (2) the securing of the desired response from one segment of any one of these audiences may be upon a basis to cause undesired reactions in other segments; and (3) the speedy evolution of international relations may require a fundamental change almost overnight in the kind of stereotyped judgments that are sought.

United States domestic politics a generation ago began to feel the effects of revolutionary changes induced by development of rapid means of mass communication. No longer is it possible for a candidate to address local groups without serious regard for the effect of what he says upon the whole nation. The problem of presidential candidates has, accordingly, become much more difficult. The attempt inevitably has been made to submerge sectional differences, especially during the course of a political campaign. And this has been done by two means. The first is to seek to concentrate attention of voters upon platitudes acceptable in all sections.² The second is to seek vital issues upon which a decisive majority can be brought into agreement; and the available field in which such issues can most often be found is in international relations.

Diplomats have much more recently been subjected to this same revolution, this time with substantially the whole world joined in one mass-communications network. In comparison with candidates for domestic offices, they are severely handicapped in attempting to readjust to this new world situation. In the first place, there are comparatively few platitudes that have both world-wide acceptance and sufficient reality to be effective. The present two-world division between democratic and Communist ideologies is a harrowing example. And in the second place, the very authoritative positions from which diplomats can formulate their policies are subject to the strains and pressures of domestic politics. For one example, Russia "dare not" back down from her aggressive program for fear of repercussions at home. For another, France has been greatly weakened in international influence because of the precarious balance of her

²This problem has been treated in some detail by the writer in "The Influence of Verbalism in American Political Campaign Speaking," in Donald C. Bryant ((ed.), *Papers In Rhetoric* (St. Louis, 1940), 46-55; "Modern Witch Doctors," *Emerson Quarterly* (April, 1940), 3-4, 8, 11-12; and "Electionisms," *American Speech* (Feb., 1933), 20-22, and (February, 1937), 3-9.

internal politics. And for still another, the United States' position on such an issue as the partition of Palestine has proved subject to the pressures of decisive blocs of voters.

The net conclusion from even so cursory a survey must be that the speech of diplomacy is subject to almost intolerable difficulties. It is no wonder that long and agonized preparation is required for the announcement of Truman Doctrines or Marshall Plans, and for the holding of international conferences. The slowness and uncertainty in our foreign policy are wholly explicable in terms of our old, familiar concept of audience analysis. But this does not mean that the difficulties should be accepted as an adequate rationalization for the failures that have occurred. It should mean, rather, that increased expertness in audience analysis is acutely required. It ought to mean that the highest skills of the speech experts and of experts in international affairs should be joined. Perhaps it is impractical to produce speech experts who are also experts in international affairs; if so, the converse would seem to be equally true. Surely recent world history indicates that it is. The remedy would seem to be to combine the two types of expertness through group conferences on top administrative levels where foreign policy is formulated and phrased.

III.

The preceding section has dealt primarily with the problem of diplomats in formulating and phrasing public addresses and supplementary public statements. Much the same handicaps confront them when they meet in international conferences. This is particularly true when the conferences are either immediately or indirectly open to public inspection. There has understandably developed a deep disillusionment with "secret diplomacy," and a corresponding determination to support only "open covenants, openly arrived at." The results of secret agreements made at Teheran and Yalta properly confirm these feelings.

Nevertheless, it must be granted that the relatively "open" conferences held by the Big Powers since the end of the war offer no recommendation for open diplomacy. The hands of diplomats are securely bound if they must go into conferences prepared to address themselves concurrently to home, enemy, and neutral audiences at the same time. The complete break-down of the London "Big Four" foreign ministers conference in November-December, 1947, left only

stalemate in its wake.

One remedy, whether or not it may prove the only one short of war, is to permit to diplomats the luxury of addressing only one audience at a time. This requires a return to secret negotiations. It might be permitted on the basis of formulating limited foreign policy objectives, involving considerable sacrifices for the sake of compromise agreements. In such a case, diplomatic representatives could assemble behind a veil of secrecy, charged only with the duty of reaching the best agreements they can, short of sacrificing the minimum positions they have been required to maintain. Not even this would work if the Soviet Union, for instance, is bound to objectives the United States could not possibly accept. But when the world confronts the imminent threat of another war, perhaps the attempt ought to be made.³

In such an attempt it would be possible, as now it is impossible, to apply the basic fundamental of the group discussion technique — which I take to be "group thinking to evolve a common conclusion." Under prevailing diplomatic restrictions, no such conference situation is possible. Instead, the thinking is done in the capitals of participating nations before the conference is convened, and the whole effort must be devoted to breaking down with arguments and force the existing opposition to preconceived goals.

IV.

While the most important and most difficult speech of diplomacy consists of the formulation of public addresses, and (under existing conditions of inimical national sovereignty), the most futile diplomatic speech is that devoted to international conferences, by far the greatest amount of diplomatic speech occurs in person-to-person consultations. At all levels, from top to bottom of official hierarchies, there are many daily consultations taking place between representatives of one government and another. In many instances, these may

³If the scope of this article permitted, I should like to suggest that such a minimum position should be, for the United States, an insistence upon effective world government, with the United Nations being implemented with sufficient sovereign power to determine and apply solutions to problems outstanding between individual nations. While I do not expect that the Soviet Union would accept this minimum position, I do feel that it is the only position that offers a shred of hope for constructive rebuilding of the world following the destructive holocaust that seems to be bearing down upon us.

involve a number of participants, but they remain on a person-to-person basis since there are always "two sides," with a leading spokesman for each. The techniques governing this kind of speaking have been worked out through many generations, and involve almost countless aspects.

In such speaking it is considered of prime importance to achieve the correct "level" of consultation. The representative of one government, for instance, must ordinarily insist upon consulting with an official of the other government whose rank and authority are at least as high as his own. This is not a mere quibbling over protocol, but involves the deepest considerations of the sovereign relationship of States. If the concept of "equality" is not maintained, the whole theory of sovereign power crumbles.

Secondly, the precise degree of hostility, friendship, or indifference that is to be expressed must be reckoned in advance, and overtly expressed. The language of diplomacy has been widely misunderstood as consisting principally of sweet words and blandishments. Quite to the contrary, it often consists of extreme brusqueness or of patent indifference. The latter may take the form of keeping an appointee waiting for ten or fifteen minutes, while the official he is to see may be observed through an open door shuffling papers at his desk. It is readily transmitted, as teachers of speech well know, by bodily posture and tones of voice.

In any event, the communication between the two governmental representatives is not at all upon a personal basis. Each is speaking for his own government, according to policies in the formulation of which he may have had a very minor part, if any at all. Neither is seeking to ingratiate himself with the other. Each is earnestly attempting to convey the precise shadings of feeling and understanding required by the policies he has come to represent. The conference fails or succeeds primarily to the extent to which those precise shadings are understood and transmitted to the higher levels of the hierarchy.

Under such circumstances, the ordinary rules and techniques of "good" speech may actually prove more of a handicap than a help. The thinking of the diplomat must be based squarely upon the understanding that "speech is effective solely in terms of its total context." Effective technique for one conference may prove atrociously bad if used in another that may follow it thirty minutes later. The art of

sensitively reacting to every shade of meaning, by whatever means it is conveyed, is essential. The diplomat must be skilled not only in speaking, but in listening and interpreting.

The diplomat must know, too, beyond any cavil, the prime necessity for the utmost precision in formulating his objectives for every speech or conference. Seldom — probably never — is any major goal achieved in one meeting. Many speeches and many speakers, on many very different occasions, are required before the desired end result is achieved. Careful analysis is required of what has occurred in any one speech session, in order to determine on what basis the succeeding effort should be made. In terms such as these, the old familiar advice we have so long repeated to our students to "limit the speech purpose and phrase it precisely" takes on deeper cogency and added significance.

Obviously, too, in conference situations the only kind of speech that can be used is the extemporaneous type. Preparation must be total — involving audience analysis, self-preparation, and thorough mastery of the subject in all its aspects and implications. Each speaker must seek to know more about all phases of the subject than does his conferee. While a modicum of bluff is certainly used, a diplomatic conference is similar, in many respects, to the trial of the Hindu Fakir in walking through a bed of red-hot stones: it is well to know precisely where it is safe to step!

V.

In final summary of what is necessarily a hasty survey of a most important speech field, it may be said that speech lies at the very core of diplomacy. Basic policies are always decided in conferences among many advisors. Strategy in achieving the desired ends is again subject to group discussion and often to group decision. The steps necessary to achieve the objectives are a combination of force and persuasion. In the long run, the highest success is won by the diplomatic team best able to implant the most effective stereotyped judgments in the minds of the three audiences always ultimately addressed in diplomatic speaking. Diplomacy utilizes many means, but fundamental among them is *speech*. In the speech of diplomacy is a vital area for significant research. As the currents of international relations in our time clearly indicate, there is urgent necessity that this problem should not be ignored.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER TESTING FOR SPEECH DEFECTS

by
BRYNG BRYNGELSON*

I became interested some years ago in whether or not the general classroom teacher could reliably test school children for speech defects. If this could be done it would save the incoming speech clinician from two to three month's work surveying all the school children for purposes of culling out those needing speech and hearing rehabilitation.

Over a period of three years the author conducted such a teacher's survey in five different school systems. This program encompassed over four thousand school children from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. Three hundred teachers participated in the survey and their reliability was checked against the author's testing of a random sampling of from forty to fifty children in each school. The results indicated a .96 reliability, which I believe is as high as found among speech correctionists generally. Because of these satisfying results I am minded to indicate how such a survey was introduced to the teachers in hopes that speech clinicians will feel justified in asking the teachers of any particular school to do the initial job of locating the children who need speech aid.

The superintendent of each school called a meeting of all his teachers. He introduced the subject of the handicapped child by reminding them of the many children they had already reported to him as needing the kind of special care which only a trained specialist could give. He solicited their interest in a cooperative effort in parcelling out the speech deviates in order to determine whether or not there were a sufficient number of defectives to warrant the full-time services of a speech clinician. The mimeographed sheet (sample on last page) was handed out to each teacher and then it was my responsibility in the hour and a quarter allotted me to "teach" them what they were to look for when the children were to be tested.

It is difficult to describe in detail how I proceeded, and each

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speech clinician will undoubtedly do it with her own modifications. In general, however, I took them through each item on the survey sheet and as I described each defect I imitated it for them. I called on three or four teachers to stand up and test their imitative powers. This phase of the introduction lent itself to a humorous rapport as it was for them a good lesson in objectivity. They were able to imitate remarkably well after my brief demonstration. Obviously not all the items on the survey sheet could be imitated. Instead I told them of the most obvious symptoms. Oddly enough many of the teachers had already spotted several of their children, and were now pleased to know a proper name for the speech difference.

They were then told that the following week the superintendent's secretary would place on their desks survey sheets for each child in their room. They could have each child read or talk or both at some special hour during the ensuing week. Or they could listen to each child in regular classroom recitations. No specific testing material was suggested to them. At the end of the week the teacher was instructed to turn in a survey sheet for each pupil to the central office. In these schools which were surveyed the school nurse went over the survey sheets and culled out those marked as speech defective by the teacher. If this were to be done by a new speech clinician already on the job she, of course, would do this, probably with the assistance of the nurse.

The school nurse sent me all the survey sheets that the teachers had marked for speech correction. I catalogued them according to clinical types and then returned to the schools for a random sampling check. A final report of the findings with recommendations was sent to the superintendent and in each school there were a sufficient number of children needing speech attention to warrant the services of a full-time speech clinician. Fortunately, each school obtained one the following year.

If the schools thus surveyed have mental, audiometric, reading, medical and dental reports on their pupils the clinician can record the results on the survey sheet — thus making this a rather adequate diagnostic sheet for each child. After parental interviews and pupil examinations of the most severe cases, the speech clinician is ready to launch her clinical program. There should not be more than 60 cases on the clinic roll for effective treatment.

There are many advantages of this type of approach to a public

school speech correction program. The common complaint of speech clinicians in a new school setup is that cooperation of the classroom teacher is difficult to solicit. We hear often that the teacher looks askance at the clinician because she has so few children under her care and therefore her job is easy, and besides she may be getting for such minor work a larger salary. No such complaints were made in the five schools I have written about. In two schools the teachers had asked for the survey and in all five schools the teachers had made the original diagnosis for the speech clinician. The program became a wholesome cooperative effort.

Also, the procedures outlined here give the speech clinician an easy entre to the classroom for follow-up work. The speech clinician will also find that the majority of the items under item 7 (voice) are not clinical but classroom problems. Voices that are too weak, strong, high, hollow or monotone usually are manifestations of emotional immaturity or insecurity. The clinician proceeds to utilize her easy contact with the teachers by giving them a basic program of mental hygiene for the management of the majority of the voice cases.

With the basic understanding, on the part of the teachers, of this school-wide cooperative program for the handicapped child and adult, the speech clinician will be found to be most welcome in addressing them at staff meeting. She should report the condition and progress of her clinical cases from time to time. She should speak at P.T.A. meetings, put on demonstrations of different types of speech cases for the purpose of creating and maintaining a community-wide interest in clinical speech. Superintendents in most school systems will be found to be most cooperative in all these efforts and speech clinicians need have no fear that they are not a very important and integral part of the entire educational program of the school and community.

There are many obvious things I have omitted in this brief paper — such as the close association of the speech clinician with the orthodontist, oral surgeon, pediatrician, principal, school nurse, elementary supervisor and the parent. This kind of a closely knit co-operation is taken for granted as being a part of the duties of a well-trained speech clinician.

CLASSROOM TEACHER'S SPEECH SURVEY

School

Name of Pupil..... Teacher..... Date.....

Birth Date.....

Grade

1. Stuttering

2. Lisping (th for s)

3. Lateral "s"

4. Defective "s" (Thick) — (Whistle)

5. Sound Substitution and Omission

6. Oral Inactivity

7. Voice

- a. Too weak
- b. Too strong
- c. Too high
- d. Raucous — hoarse
- e. Too nasal
- f. Hollow
- g. Monotone

8. Dialectal

9. Cerebral Palsy

TESTS

10. Cleft Palate

Mental

11. Deafened

Audiometric

12. Handedness L R E

Reading

13. Aphasia

MEDICAL REPORT:

TEACHER'S COMMENTS:

DENTAL REPORT:

SOUTHERN GRADUATE STUDY IN SPEECH AND THEATRE: 1950

CHARLES MUNRO GETCHELL

Ninety-one studies are reported as having been accepted during 1950 by Southern universities in partial fulfillment of the requirements for graduate degrees in the fields of speech and theatre. Of these, one study was a doctoral dissertation. Such a number of studies indicates a marked increase over the number accepted in preceding years, and this increase is generally proportional to interest previously shown in each of the five divisions set up in earlier reports on Southern graduate study in speech.¹

Twelve studies in public address, of which eight deal with topics concerning the South, were accepted. Six were drawn from research in radio; fourteen were developed from study in speech education; twenty were based on investigations of speech science.

The most popular division, judging by numbers, continues to be theatre and interpretation, although it might be noted that in this year no thesis appeared that deals with oral interpretation. Of the thirty-eight theses concerned with theatre, four deal with Southern materials. The fact that nine theses are original full-length plays, a marked increase, will be of especial interest to those who advocate the acceptance of suitable creative writing in place of the more conventional research thesis. Another seven theses were production book studies. Finally, the one doctoral dissertation accepted during this year falls within this division.

The following table shows the analysis of all studies accepted from 1932 through 1950. Figures in parentheses refer to those studies accepted in 1950. The figures given first in each instance are cumulative totals.

¹See Charles Munro Getchell, "Southern Graduate Study in Speech and Theatre Before 1941," *THE SOUTHERN SPEECH JOURNAL*, XV (March, 1950), 222-229; "Southern Graduate Study in Speech and Theatre From 1941 to 1950," *ibid.*, XV (May, 1950), 297-306.

	Master's Theses	Doctoral Dissertations	Total	Southern Regional Subjects
Public Address	33 (12)	6 (0)	33 (12)	26 (8)
Radio	16 (6)	0	16 (6)	7 (3)
Speech Education	47 (14)	2 (0)	49 (14)	16 (7)
Speech Science	79 (20)	11 (0)	90 (20)	34 (6)
Theatre and Interpretation	128 (38)	4 (1)	132 (39)	11 (4)

PUBLIC ADDRESS

Babcock, Helen Kilpatrick, "A Rhetorical Study of Selected Speeches of Helen Gahagan Douglas on Domestic Issues, 1945-1948." Louisiana State University, 1950.

Brinegar, Haywood C., "Alexander Campbell as a Debater." University of Tennessee, 1950.

Carpenter, Oneda Pruette, "Stephen A. Douglas as a Speaker." Baylor University, 1950.

Caylor, John, Jr., "A Rhetorical Analysis of Two Speeches by Judah P. Benjamin." Texas Christian University, 1950.

Conklin, Royal Forrest, Jr., "A History and Analysis of Debate Tournaments in the United States." Baylor University, 1950.

Diven, William Albert, "A Rhetorical Analysis of the Alabama Speeches of Stephen A. Douglas During the Presidential Campaign of 1860." University of Alabama, 1950.

Dreyfuss, Audrey W., "A Rhetorical Analysis of the Two Inaugural Addresses of Jefferson Davis." University of Alabama, 1950.

Eubanks, Ralph T., "The Major Senatorial Speeches of William C. Preston." University of Florida, 1950.

Gonce, Albert A., Jr., "A Rhetorical Analysis and Criticism of Selected Occasional Addresses of Alexander Campbell." University of Alabama, 1950.

Holland, DeWitte T., "An Analytical Study of Selected Sermons of

George W. Truett." University of Alabama, 1950.

Leistner, Charles August, "Analysis of the Causes of Breakdown in Discussion." Baylor University, 1950.

Merrill, Dorothy Jefferson, "The Speaking of Theodore G. Bilbo in the 1934 Mississippi Senatorial Campaign." Louisiana State University, 1950.

RADIO

Baker, Roy E., "A Study of the Utilization of Educational Radio in Selected High Schools in Florida." University of Florida, 1950.

Barrett, Marvlyn Tippett, "A Comparative Study of the Public Service Aspects of Radio Broadcasting by the Independent Radio Station and the Network Affiliate Station." University of Florida, 1950.

Hargrove, Theta Plunkett, "A Study of the Standards of Religious Radio as Applied to Two Locally Originated Programs in Brownwood, Texas." Baylor University, 1950.

Shropshire, William, "A Survey Analysis of Contemporary Trends in Educational Radio in the Secondary School Program." Texas Christian University, 1950.

Snider, Ted Lowell, "Survey of the Status and Needs of Education for Television in the United States." Baylor University, 1950.

Steis, William B., "A Comparative Study of the Daytime Programming Policies of WCLE, an Independent Radio Station, and WFLA, an Affiliated Station, in the State of Florida." University of Florida, 1950.

SPEECH EDUCATION

Bryson, Betty Dean, "An Evaluation of Special Education by Superintendents of Texas Public Schools." University of Texas, 1950.

Furr, Henry Bedford, "The Place of Speech in Public Relations Activity and Training Among the Colleges and the Universities of the Southwest." Southern Methodist University, 1950.

Harrington, C. Bennett, "A Survey and Analysis of the Speech Courses Taught in Colleges and Departments of Engineering in the United States." Southern Methodist University, 1950.

Harris, Margaret Frances, "A Comparative Study of Two Speech Survey Techniques Used in the Beaumont Independent Schools." University of Texas, 1950.

Lane, Mary Louise, "A Study of Speech and Speech Defects in American Schools for the Blind." Southern Methodist University, 1950.

Marshall, Mary Amelia, "Survey and Evaluation of Speech Offerings in the Public and Private Junior Colleges of Texas in 1947-48." University of Texas, 1950.

Mince, Ruby E., "A Suggested Program for Leisure and Activities in the Primary Grades at Lamar School, Odessa, Texas." University of Texas, 1950.

Pass, Mary Florence, "An Inquiry into the Relationship Between Spelling and Articulatory Defects in High School Freshmen." University of Alabama, 1950.

Ragsdale, Ruth Norman, "Adjustments of Post-polio children." University of Texas, 1950.

Rose, Perle Elizabeth, "The Use of Projected Materials in Teaching Beginning Reading to Deaf Children." University of Texas, 1950.

Rudisill, Vivian Theresa Adams, "A Study of Developmental Tasks Confronting First Grade Children." University of Texas, 1950.

Sleeper, Anna Elizabeth, "A Developmental Survey of Speech Cor-

rection in New Orleans." Louisiana State University, 1950.

Stephens, Mary Elizabeth, "Problems Pertaining to the Training and Certification of Teachers of Exceptional Children in Texas." University of Texas, 1950.

Trawich, Lillian, "An Evaluation of the Literature on Stage Fright." Florida State University, 1950.

SPEECH SCIENCE

Adams, E. Beverly, "The Therapeutic Value of Audio Aids and Speech Activities in a Public School Speech Correction Program." University of Florida, 1950.

Alexander, Elizabeth, "An Experimental Study of the Effectiveness of the Administration of Thiamin Hydrochloride in Preventing Stuttering Among Pre-School Children." University of Florida, 1950.

Barthelow, Carolyn, "A Study of the Relationship of Speech Intelligibility to Hearing Loss." University of Texas, 1950.

Baxter, Kelmer D., "The Development of a Library of Color Slides in Speech Science." University of Florida, 1950.

Brice, Barbara C., "A Pilot Study of the Relationship of Selected Voice Quality Deviations and Anxiety Level as Determined by the Thematic Apperception Test." Florida State University, 1950.

Carrow, Sister Mary Arthur, "A Survey of the Speech and Hearing Problems of the Catholic Elementary School Children in Austin, Texas." University of Texas, 1950.

Clark, Mrs. Pauline Stevenson, "The Development of a Visible Phonetic Approach to Speech Sound Production." University of Texas, 1950.

Crow, Porter Jackson, "Standardization of American Speech: Re-

flected by One Texas Family of Five Generations." Southern Methodist University, 1950.

Culbreath, Mrs. Cleo Smyth, "A Survey of Means of Communication Used by Former Students of the Texas School for the Deaf." University of Texas, 1950.

Godar, Sidney, "Analysis and Evaluation of State Hearing Conservation Programs in United States with Possible Application to a Program for the State of Virginia." University of Virginia, 1950.

Harrington, Donald Anson, "An Experimental Study of the Subjective and Objective Characteristics of Sustained Vowels at High Pitches." Louisiana State University, 1950.

Herndon, Jane Neal, "A Compilation and Critical Evaluation of Reading Materials to be Used in the Therapy with Primary Children with Articulatory Defects." University of Virginia, 1950.

Holden, Albert Nash, "An Evaluation of the Social Orientation of Stutterers." University of Texas, 1950.

Pollan, Madlyn Evelyn Schuchert, "A Speech Survey of the Colored Children in the Elementary and Junior High Schools of Austin, Texas." University of Texas, 1950.

Roberts, Charles Douglas, "The Incidence of Color-Blindness Among Fifty Stutterers." University of Texas, 1950.

Tharp, James, "Physiological Approach to the Development of Resonance in the Phonological Mechanism." Southern Methodist University, 1950.

Troeller, Robert Burl, "An Experimental Study of the Intensity of the Vibration of the Bony Framework of the Chest During the Sounding of Vowels." University of Virginia, 1950.

Vanhoove, Donna Booch Robertson, "A Survey of Speech Defects in Four White Elementary Schools of Austin, Texas." University of Texas, 1950.

Willingham, Bernardine, "Science for Youth in Schools for the Deaf." University of Texas, 1950.

Wilson, Elizabeth Kearny, "The Effect of Maturation on Functional Articulatory Defects in the Elementary School." University of Virginia, 1950.

THEATRE AND INTERPRETATION

Bennett, Frank David, "The Southern Character as Presented by American Playwrights from 1923 to 1947." University of Florida, 1950.

Barbira, Elizabeth, "Uniforms of American Domestics, 1885-1910." University of Texas, 1950.

Bridges, John Anthony, "A Study of the Drama as Religious Education." University of North Carolina, 1950.

Burkhart, A. Gray, "Standards of Criticism in the Modern American Theatre." University of Tennessee, 1950.

Casey, Francis Michael, "Angels Full Front." [a full-length play] University of North Carolina, 1950.

Cates, Alton R. Jr., "The One-act Play on the Professional Stage; a Record of Production in New York City, 1900-1950." Louisiana State University, 1950.

Chavez, Edmund, "Production Script for *Angel Street*." University of Texas, 1950.

Cody, Ioleen Yvonne, "A Study and Production Book of Leonid Andreyev's *He Who Gets Slapped*." University of Florida, 1950.

Coley, Mary Huntington, "Seeds of Freedom." [a full-length play] University of North Carolina, 1950.

Covington, Walter P., III, "A Maxwell Anderson Bibliography."

University of North Carolina, 1950.

Dawson, Elizabeth Lawrence, "Try Her How She Swims." [a full-length play] University of North Carolina, 1950.

Finlayson, Alex Wakefield, "The Expense of the Battle." [a full-length play] University of North Carolina, 1950.

Ganz, Arthur, "Shakespeare on Broadway." University of Tennessee, 1950.

Hatcher, James F., Jr., "An Introductory Study of Dramatic Activity in Ten Cities in Alabama." University of Alabama, 1950.

Hayes, John, "Production Script for *Playboy of the Western World*." University of Texas, 1950.

Hindman, Jennie Louise, "Theories of Acting: Aristotle to Lucian. A Collection of Ancient Writings which Exist in English Translation and Which Give Some Apparently Trustworthy Indications as to the Technique of the Actors of Greece and Rome." Louisiana State University, 1950 [Ph. D. Dissertation].

Howard, Mildred Langford, "Samantha Prescott." [a full-length play] University of North Carolina, 1950.

Johnston, Roy J., "Social Concepts in the Early American Drama to 1825." University of Tennessee, 1950.

Jones, Thomas, "Production Script for *Roadside*." University of Texas, 1950.

Karchmer, Sylvan, "Stranger Upon Earth." [a full-length play] University of Texas, 1950.

Kittle, Russell Dale, "A Study of the Dramatic Criticism of Four New York Newspaper Drama Critics: Brooks Atkinson, Louis Kronenberger, Ward Morehouse, and Richard Watts, Jr., 1939-1949." University of Florida, 1950.

Knowles, Robert L., "The Dublin Gate Theatre, 1928-1948." University of Florida, 1950.

McElroy, Clyde Wayne, "A Study of Post War Plays." Baylor University, 1950.

McKinney, Eugene Calvin, "Film Dramatization of the Organization Program." Baylor University, 1950.

McRae, Jeanne Claire, "A Study of Children's Theatre." Baylor University, 1950.

MacIlwinen, William Lee, "Remember York Heart." [a full-length musical play] University of North Carolina, 1950.

Massey, Cecil Earl, "An Analysis and Study of the Leisure Time Problem in Tin Top, Texas." Baylor University, 1950.

Mathis, B. J., "A Producing Director's Study, Designs, Adaptation, and Prompt Book for *The Miser* by Moliere." Florida State University, 1950.

Milburn, Mary Joseph, "Indeed the Idols." [a full-length play] University of North Carolina, 1950.

Miller, Antoinette, "The Joan of Arc Theme in Dramatic Literature." University of Tennessee, 1950.

Mullin, John B. Jr., "The One-act Play as Preparations for the Full-length Play: an Analysis of Three Playwrights." Louisiana State University, 1950.

Rogers, Ralph Leroy, "A Study of the Basic Architectural Characteristics." Baylor University, 1950.

Sargent, James, "Dramatic Criticism and Its Relation to Box Office and Public Opinion, 1875-1910." University of Texas, 1950.

Smith, Doyle, "Production Script for *Thunder Rock*." University of

Texas, 1950.

Smith, Fred, "Production Script for *My Heart's in the Highlands*."

Stephens, Ann Barham, "A Survey of the Little Theatre Movement in Texas Colleges and Communities." Texas Christian University, 1950.

Stockdale, Joseph Gagen, Jr., "October in the Spring." [a full-length play] University of North Carolina, 1950.

Taylor, Jean, "Representative Women in the American Theatre During the Nineteenth Century." University of Texas, 1950.

Weaver, Lawrence Odell, "Productions of the Plays of Eugene O'Neill in England, 1921-1944." University of North Carolina, 1950.

THE AMERICAN FORENSIC ASSOCIATION IN THE SOUTH

The American Forensic Association, which celebrated its first birthday at the annual meeting of the Speech Association of America in 1950, has aroused interest and enthusiasm among forensic directors. Since numerous questions have been asked and are being asked about the organization, I would like to make clear its purpose and functions.

Debate coaches throughout the nation, who are closely allied in their individual honorary forensic organizations but very loosely allied as an entire group, felt the need for an organization in which they could discuss and attempt to solve their mutual problems. Realizing the close ties between the field of forensics and the general speech program, it is not the purpose of this organization to segregate forensic directors from existing speech organizations but rather to provide a means of uniting these directors within the present organizations. Affiliation with the Speech Association of America has been requested and, in our region, with the Southern Speech Association.

The national organization now has 188 members. The New England and Southern Regions were organized last spring; the Pacific Coast Region was organized this fall. Programs planned for the Speech Association of America convention were a business meeting at 2:00 p.m. Wednesday and a sectional meeting at 7:00 p.m. Friday.

Since we are concerned here with the regional aspects of this program, let us examine what has been done in the Southern Region. At the annual meeting of the Southern Speech Association last spring the following officers were elected: Mrs. Annabel Dunham Hagood, University of Alabama, chairman; Mr. Roger Busfield, Florida State University, secretary-treasurer; Dr. Harvey Cromwell, Mississippi State College for Women; Mr. W. Scott Nobles, Louisiana College; and Mr. Franklin Shirley, Wake Forest College, members of the Executive Council.

The following action has been taken by this Region:

1. The problem of raising forensic standards was considered at the annual meeting. A recommendation was submitted to the Executive Committee of the Southern Speech Association that the Southern Speech Tournament be used as an experimental

proving ground for improving forensic activities in the state.

2. A calendar of debate tournaments has been set up and copies are mailed out periodically to all members.

The Southern Region is working on the following projects:

1. A committee is studying the problem of judging debates and individual contests and will report at the spring meeting.
2. A committee is drafting a constitution for the Region.

The Southern Region of the American Forensic Association is functioning to better forensics. We shall welcome your suggestions; if you are a forensic director we shall welcome your membership.

Annabel Dunham Hagood
Chairman, Southern Region
American Forensic Association

IMPROVED TOURNAMENT IN PROSPECT

At our Southern Speech Association Tournament and Congress last year in Birmingham coaches from all sections of the South spent some time discussing the value of our annual tournament. A number of constructive suggestions were made for the improving of the tournament with the basic desire of getting away from the usual faults of contest forensics and of coming to more solid educational values. To that end a committee was appointed consisting of Batsell Barrett Baxter, Dallas Dickey, and Paul Brandes. These three were given the responsibility of making the tournament an experimental tournament designed to discover a more valuable type of procedure. The committee has worked through the year and has made a number of changes in the past procedure after carefully considering many suggestions from members of the association. The forthcoming tournament, April 2-6, in Gainesville, Florida, will be something new and, we believe, something better.

The major changes include:

- (1) the use of critic judges, who will spend a period at the end of each contest in oral evaluation of the performances;
- (2) the ranking of speakers in the general categories of Superior, Excellent, Good, Fair or Poor, instead of announcing first, second, and third place winners;
- (3) the evaluating of the judges of the tournament through the use of a questionnaire, to the end that those who have had the most training in speech will be used for the most difficult assignments;
- (4) the use of a second debate question, as in the past several years;
- (5) the introduction of a new type of debate — Direct Clash — for two rounds during the tournament;
- (6) the use of new ballots for all contests with instructions to guide the judges in making their decisions.

In all probability some of these changes will have to be interpreted, i.e. "sold" to our students who have been trained to want to go home with a "first" or "second" award to display before their friends. In a period when in certain sections of our country tournaments are being severely attacked as no longer being in keeping with the times,

we feel that modifications must take place for our survival. The above changes are designed to keep the good points of our tournament work and to increase its educational value to the students.

After careful consideration, the Tournament Committee has decided that the debating of any question other than that of the World Crisis would be completely unrealistic at this time. Accordingly, a rewording of the current national question, in light of present day events, will be used. Our students may well continue their study of the United Nations, the Atlantic Pact, the possibility of a federal world government, the U. S. foreign policy as it relates to keeping U. S. troops in Western Europe and in Asia, and similar matters. If you desire to receive a set of the Tournament and Congress rules, contact:

Batsell Barrett Baxter
David Lipscomb College
Nashville, Tennessee

BOOK REVIEWS

SPEECH THERAPY FOR THE PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED: By Sara Stinchfield Hawk. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1950; pp. xii + 245; \$4.00.

The author is well known for her pioneering work in speech pathology and her many articles and books dealing with delayed speech and defective speech. This book is a condensation of her experience as director of the speech clinic at the Orthopedic Hospital in Los Angeles from 1933 to the present. The book also includes much of the philosophy of Dr. Charles C. Stivers, deceased, founder and director of the speech clinic from 1918-33, as interpreted by the author.

Dr. Hawk hopes that the publication may prove "useful to teachers in speech correction and to speech clinical workers, social workers, and psychologists, as well as those members of the medical profession who, like the members of the staff of our hospital, have always shown a keen interest in the various phases of speech diagnosis and speech correction as related to other hospital services for the handicapped child." No doubt it will prove useful to these workers, but some may be disappointed. Many who work with children with handicaps are looking for specific instructions to help each specific group.

The author emphasizes that the same general treatment procedures in speech therapy are desirable for the "physically handicapped" as for any other children with speech defects. The book then becomes a treatment of speech defects—not too unlike many others in the field with an occasional reference to a "spastic child."

It is unfortunate that Dr. Hawk, as do so many writers, refers to the "spastic child" and to "handicapped children." Why cannot we talk and write about *children* who have cerebral palsy and *children* with handicaps? Then we might more easily see that any techniques of correction are simply as applied to a particular child with a particular handicap or handicaps.

The author is to be commended for reemphasizing the intimate association between gesture and speech both from the developmental aspect and from the therapeutic considerations. We need to be continually reminded that gesture preceded speech and precedes speech. This concept aids in "stressing the co-ordinations between fundamental and accessory muscles, which often aid in the release of both."

More than half the book is devoted to *Speech Clinical Methods* which includes case history forms, articulation tests, relaxation and breathing exercises, consideration of each phonetic sound with word lists, sentences, poetry, and prose for practice material. Similar drill materials may be found in many books. There are too few applications of this material to the text of *Speech Therapy for the Physically Handicapped*.

Stuttering is considered in various places throughout the book. It is not clear whether the author implied that stuttering is a physical handicap or whether she is thinking only of children with physical handicaps who are also

stutterers. The author states, "any of the exercises for breathing and relaxation are applicable to work with the stutterer. . . ." She further recommends that "many of the pages on articulation may be used with stutterers provided too much stress is not placed on individual sounds." Statements of this kind may be confusing to the wide range of readers addressed by the author. A series of "special projects" for those who stutter would no doubt be fine in the hands of the trained speech clinician; but it is to be hoped the "social workers" and others would not attempt their use without adequate training.

Chapter five gives a report of statistical observations of fifty-three cases treated in the speech clinic during an eight year period. This chapter emphasizes the importance of not comparing the child with a handicap with the hypothetical so-called "normal" child. Rather we must think of the status of the child before therapy with what he is after therapy. The author emphasizes that while speech training is slow with the "handicapped child," it saves energy, develops co-ordination, improves nutrition, develops mental ability, and arouses latent power, as well as improving the speech pattern of the child with a physical handicap.

Notwithstanding some of the things we might have desired in this publication, *Speech Therapy for the Physically Handicapped* will challenge the reader and will prove as helpful to the clinician as do all of the other writings of Dr. Hawk.

DARREL J. MASE

University of Florida

RADIO AND TELEVISION: An Introduction. By Giraud Chester and Garnet R. Garrison. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1950; pp. XV + 550; \$4.75.

It is no secret that books on broadcasting written by educators are usually met with misgivings by radio professionals. But I suspect that most broadcasters will, as I did, put this one down with no small degree of admiration. I think they will agree with me that its subject is at least recognizable as that body of knowledge which American broadcasters share. And they will be heartened by the fact that this book attempts, as an introduction, to survey the whole of its subject, not a particular facet of it which has engaged the particular fancy of the educator.

This book is important because it recognizes to some extent that American broadcasting is the product of a very complex interaction among people, government, and business—and within the industry itself among those who engineer, those who program, and those who sell. The perspective this book achieves is certainly not panoramic, but the authors are looking about them.

For one thing, they perceive the fact that television is a phenomenon growing within the framework of the broadcasting enterprise. They have not quarantined it. That is a step forward in introductory texts and serves to illuminate both the new and the traditional pattern of American broadcasting.

Recognizing that there exists a direct and reciprocal causal relation between the broad social aspects of broadcasting on the one hand and the particular

practices of broadcasters on the other, and sensing that American broadcasting is intelligible only in the light of both, the authors have organized much of the book into two sections: Part I is called "Radio and Television in Society"; Part II is "Radio and Television in the Studio." The book's strongest point, its authenticity, reflects painstaking research and documentation. Its pages are filled with facts, quotation, tables, and diagrams; with telling photographs, and with representative scripts. Little of this factual material is dated—some of it is less than 12 months old. In studying this text, the student is not asked to build his understanding of the subject upon information which is obsolete.

Unfortunately, the text is guilty of several of the commonest failings. The book shares, however, a fault familiar in most introductions by virtue of its selective treatment of the practical side of broadcasting: It treats radio programming alone, and does not discuss how to sell, promote an audience, or merchandise for the sponsor, to name only one omission.

American radio is a growing and changing activity. But this diversity is not expressed in the text. The student of this text will not know, for example, that the technique of cuing transcriptions which the authors describe by steps is, in fact, banned in many stations because it damages both the transcriptions and the reproducing style. Many of the dogmatic statements in this book cry for the qualification: "but this is not always so."

The text, in common with so many others, is guilty of another failing, concerning itself primarily with what may be termed BIG time radio, and virtually ignoring the existence of the grass-roots of the radio industry in this country—the 250 watt peanut whistles which dot the land. They have, for example, developed that distinctive phenomenon of American broadcasting, the "combination man." His is perhaps the surest and most stable job in the industry for beginners, yet in this book—in the chapter on employment—he remains unsung.

This again transcends the question of scholarship. The impressionable student who reads this book will expect from it sound vocational guidance. The student also will judge from the space the book devotes to radio drama (almost a hundred pages) that it occupies a happy place in the scheme of station programming, even if he happens to read and remember the authors' two paragraphs which tell him bluntly the sad story: of the two thousand American stations, only a dozen or so in the largest cities—the network flagships—are doing any professional radio drama.

The final chapter, called "Standards of Criticism," attempts to formulate a basis for intelligent program criticism—a basis for intelligent program criticism—a basis sorely needed in a field which already gives evidence of constant puerility. The authors' position is that the American licensee must curb his motive for profit somewhat in order that he may serve the public. The readers of an introductory text are entitled to know the position of the broadcaster on this point. He feels that the very essence of the American system of broadcasting is precisely the coincidence of his best interests with those of his listeners. For it is the listeners who pay him for the program. They are, according to Thomas Jefferson, the best guardians of their interest; they have not delegated their interest to Charles Siepmann. In their spending, the American

people exert their certain influence. Each citizen casts his vote. And American radio is finely sensitive to it. The programming which results may not be art. It may not be a credit to taste, intelligence, or feeling. But it is that which your fellow American has bought with his hard-earned dollar.

Criticism, then, is for the listener. He needs it.

There is the usual glossary of studio terms and an eight page bibliography.

T. W. WERTENBAKER, JR.

University of Miami

MAKING CONFERENCE PROGRAMS WORK: By M. F. Stigers. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949; pp. ix + 256; \$3.50.

This is one of a growing list of books in the McGraw-Hill Industrial Organization and Management Series, and it makes a worthwhile and valuable addition both to the series and to the literature in the field of conference speaking. Aimed primarily at the problem of training conference leaders for improved management and industrial relations in industry and business, it emphasizes the importance of the conference method "in industry, in commercial organizations, in public schools, colleges and universities, in religious organizations—in fact, wherever a number of people are gathered together to do a part of the world's work."

The book has a multiple purpose. It is not simply a text of principles and techniques of conference leadership, which is the aim of the first part, but it gives as much weight, in parts two and three, to the problem of organizing and conducting a conference leader training program and to recording a variety of statements and reports from specific conference programs in action. In this sense, the book is exceedingly *functional* rather than theoretical in its message. As a matter of fact, the total philosophy of the text is one of portraying a training program in action rather than an armchair reading of principles. It is in this emphasis that *Making Conference Programs Work* lives up to its title and makes its most unique contribution.

Part I, although it has the title, "Information Sheets; How to Train Conference Leaders," devotes just 100 pages to principles and methods in leading conferences. Under such headings as "The What, When, and Where of a Conference," "Physical Arrangements," "Conference Problems," "First Steps in Preparation for a Specific Conference," "Techniques and Etiquette of a Conference," and "Planning for the Program," the 10 chapters in Part I attempt to cover the major things a good conference leader should know and do. This makes for a necessarily short treatment of some items, particularly apparent in the discussion of techniques of conference leadership. This is a key chapter which might be more systematically arranged and fuller in the handling of such items as visual aids, the leader's use of questions, and the problems of handling conferees. The latter section does have some interesting advice on handling the timid, the too frequent talker, and the private discusser.

There is a good classification of conference problems and an excellent list

of examples for use in the training program. Also well treated are the physical arrangements, the discussion plan, and the suggestions for planning and conducting the conference leader training in chapters 9 and 10.

Parts II and III are devoted to "How to Use a Conference Program" and "Statements and Typical Conference Reports." Both of these parts of the book contain interesting and forceful expressions from industrial personnel and training directors, school administrators, and others, showing the use of the conference and of conference leader training in their organizations. Part III uses almost 100 pages of specific conference reports recording the results of actual conferences. These, according to the author, are to serve as a guide for proper conference planning, and to show the importance of proper recording of a conference. This importance is stressed throughout the book, with emphasis placed on keeping permanent records of conferences in an organization.

For industrial management and training directors, there is no question that this book may serve as a very useful guide in planning and conducting a total program of conference leader development in an organization. The value of such a program in a school system or university, for those in administrative positions, is also a stimulating point of the book.

For the speech profession, and more particularly those who specialize in teaching discussion in the typical college and university course where the emphasis is largely on public discussion through the traditional forms of panel, symposium, debate, and forum leadership, this book joins with several others as a challenge to spend more time with and know more about the *conference*. Certainly more college instructors should take cognizance of this book and others written recently, primarily for industry and business, and should incorporate at least some parts of its suggested program into the college discussion course. And for those who have already progressed in their thinking to adopt this area of training as an integral part of the teaching of discussion, this writer would commend the book highly. It is a vital, workable message in a field of speech skill that is becoming increasingly important in all phases of democratic living.

HAROLD P. ZELKO

The Pennsylvania State College

THEATRE FOR CHILDREN: By Winifred Ward. Revised Edition. Anchorage, Kentucky: The Children's Theatre Press, 1950; pp. xv + 312; \$3.50.

It was indeed a day of rejoicing for those interested in Children's Theatre when the Children's Theatre Press decided to republish Winifred Ward's **THEATRE FOR CHILDREN**. This text, which should become a "Bible" for any group contemplating the establishment of a Children's Theatre, has been out of print for several years. Now, fortunately, it is once again available.

The revisions of the original text are not extensive, but those made are most valuable. The new Play List has been most practicably divided into "long" and "short" (those less than an hour). These plays have been carefully selected and this up-to-date list should prove a boon to persons who want the best

dramatic material for their Children's Theatres. The First Chapter, "Where It Came From," has also been rewritten in the sections dealing with more current activities in the United States.

One cannot help but wish that Miss Ward had been able to extend the revision even further in a few sections and perhaps have used photographs of more current children's theatre productions. Such does not detract, however, from the value of the book as it now stands. As in its original form, this book is written by an individual who knows whereof she writes from her twenty-five years of experience as director of The Children's Theatre of Evanston, Illinois. The theory is sound, the practical information general and basic, and the style of writing is charming. It should be an absolute requisite for beginning directors of plays for child audiences, whether the actors be adult, children, or a combination of the two. Teachers, recreation leaders, YMCA and YWCA leaders, workers in church schools and all others who produce children's plays will find the book an asset in their work, but I would advise these individuals to study *THEATRE FOR CHILDREN* along with the companion volume, *PLAYMAKING WITH CHILDREN* (also by Winifred Ward, Appleton-Century-Crofts). The points of view in both of these volumes are fundamental and neither should be overlooked by individuals working in children's dramatics.

KENNETH L. GRAHAM

University of Minnesota

REPRESENTATIVE AMERICAN SPEECHES: 1949-1950. Edited by A. Craig Baird. The Reference Shelf, Vol. 22, No. 3. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1950; pp. 264; \$1.75.

This is the thirteenth annual volume of *Representative American Speeches* edited by Mr. Baird and published by The H. W. Wilson Company as part of *The Reference Shelf* series. Happily, it displays the same qualities of scholarly judgment and editorial skill which from the first have made these anthologies major contributions to the field of rhetorical criticism.

Following his usual practice, Mr. Baird presents, either in part or in full, the texts of some twenty-five addresses. These are grouped under the general headings of International Policies; National Defence; Hydrogen Bomb; Government and Politics; Socio-Economic Relations; Industry, Labor, Agriculture; and Education. Included are such varied items as the Taft-Dulles debate on the Atlantic Pact; Secretary Acheson's foreign policy address at the University of California in March, 1950; Judge Harold R. Medina's charge to the jury in the communist trial; Dr. Ralph J. Bunche on "The Challenge of Human Relations," and—of especial interest to students of speech—Dean McBurney's presidential address at the Chicago convention of the S.A.A., "The Plight of the Conservative in Public Discussion."

Some teachers will doubtless continue to believe that the value of Mr. Baird's volumes in the classroom would be enhanced were he to reproduce complete speech texts. Few, however, will deny that this year, as in the past, he

has provided a handy and inexpensive reference source for many of the significant addresses of the past twelve months. Nor can there be much question concerning the value of the introductory remarks which precede each speech and outline its "background, immediate occasion, issues, ideas, structure, organization, language, audience adaptation, and immediate results." Based upon the criterion that good public speaking is effective "social adaptation," these essays are in several instances distinguished pieces of analysis.

The Introduction to the anthology deserves special comment. As readers of the series know, it is the editor's custom to discuss each year some particular aspect of speech criticism. Adding to the very useful body of comment thus far assembled, Mr. Baird deals in the current volume with the problem of oral style. "How," he asks, "are we to judge the language of a speech?" The answer, couched in fifteen specific propositions, emphasizes the purpose nature of rhetorical discourse and argues that, in the final analysis, style is a reflection of the man speaking. Although drawn in some measure from Mr. Baird's other writings, these propositions are developed with a precision and clarity which make them worthy of attention in their own right.

A cumulated author index to all of the speeches thus far published in the series is included as part of the back matter of the volume.

DOUGLAS EHNINGER

University of Florida

BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL SPEECH: By Clara Krefting Mawhinney and Harley A. Smith. New York: American Book Company, 1950; pp. 222; \$0.00.

As the title indicates, this book is primarily aimed at those in business and the professions or students preparing for those fields. The organization and suggested assignments, or, as they are called by the authors, "activities," should adapt the book for use as a text for an adult class in public speaking.

The first seven chapters comprising part one, "The Basic Factors of Business and Professional Speech," discuss the general requirements of effective speaking, motivating the student to an analysis of himself and his attitudes toward the problem. There are discussions of personality, learning, research, mental and physical control, vocabulary, grammar, and diction. This is a great undertaking for seventy-five pages of text and would undoubtedly require amplification by the instructor. Certainly the statement, "The professional person needs to give the general impression of surety. He should use downward inflection to express surety, rising inflection to indicate open-mindedness, and circumflex inflection to express consideration," should be explained. It is also to be hoped that the teacher would emphasize a more liberal attitude toward pronunciation than that indicated by the discussion of that topic. The words *abdomen* and *inquiry* are not always stressed on the second syllable, nor are the words *address*, *defect*, and *detour* only correct when stressed on the last syllable, as seems to be suggested.

The second part of the book discusses special speech situations likely to be

encountered by business and professional people. Conversations, interviews, conferences, and selling are covered, as well as special types of speeches such as those of good will, presentation and acceptance, welcome and farewell, reading written reports, radio speaking, and banquet speaking. Some good sound suggestions are given for speaking in these situations. Here again the instructor should point out that the suggestions are not all-inclusive nor are the rules inflexible. He should explain, for example, that in a speech of acceptance it is not always necessary for the recipient to "disavow worthiness" nor to "act as if he is happy," but that generally he does it to be polite.

The book is written in a clear, readable style, the illustrations are well chosen, and there are excellent summaries at the end of the chapters. It is short enough to be covered in a concentrated course. Although some of the "activities" are more adaptable to college classes than groups out of college, this book should be useful to adult classes in the field.

JOSEPH C. WETHERBY

Duke University

SPEAK WITH EASE: By Russell Conwell Ross. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, 1950; pp. ix + 118; \$2.00.

This non-academic handbook is designed to appeal to the man on the street who is in need of an easy guide to effective speech. Although it contains many practical suggestions, the author seems only vaguely aware of some of the more important elements of oral persuasion.

For organizing the speech Mr. Ross recommends his "ingenious device," the "scattergram." The speaker jots down ideas as they occur to him and later arranges them in such a manner as will "capture attention, hold attention, and increase attention." He does not mention the gathering of material, nor does he adequately explain how one captures, holds, and increases attention. Instead, eight pages of the brief volume are squandered on the subject of choosing a title. Part of this space could have been used in a discussion of the audience, an element of the speech situation which is touched upon in a very cursory fashion.

The emphasis of the book is not upon the content and organization of the speech nor the integrity and character of the speaker but rather upon the speaker's ability to sell himself, his ideas, and most important, his product.

HAYWOOD C. BRINEGAR

University of Florida

THE WELFARE STATE: Edited by Herbert L. Marx, Jr. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1950; pp. 212; \$1.75.

In attempting to evaluate the literary contribution of the Reference Shelf edition No. 4 of Vol. 22 entitled *The Welfare State* as edited by Herbert L.

Marx, Jr., one must consider the book in terms of the purposes of the Reference Shelf series.

What contributions do these books make to the field of speech? If one examines the books which have been issued in the Reference Shelf series, he will immediately note that the issues tend to cover, among other topics, the current national debate subjects. If we look back to high school and college debates which we have heard, it would be easy to convince ourselves that the Reference Shelf furnishes a primary source of evidence to debaters.

The editor of the Reference Shelf terms these books a public forum. If we accept this purpose then we must ask ourselves two questions: 1. Is this book to be used by those who are doing reading and research on a particular subject? 2. Is this book to be used as general reading to increase one's fund of knowledge?

Keeping these possible purposes in mind let us turn to *The Welfare State* and evaluate.

It seems that this book has two strikes against it from the outset. It attempts to deal with a nebulous term "welfare state" which tends to defy concrete definition; and, secondly, the term itself involves such a complexity of attitudes, political theories, and political labels, that the listener is led toward confusion rather than clarity.

Opening with nine definitions from which the reader may choose, the editor then includes thirty-seven articles. These comprise five sections, entitled: The Framework of the Problem, Merits of the Welfare State, Dangers of the Welfare State, The Welfare State Abroad, and Ways Ahead — A Variety of Views. One cannot help but note, despite the worth of many of the articles, the existence of factors of distraction (repetition of historical account from speech to speech) which handicap one's comprehension. The number of articles written by persons with obvious political interests in public reaction to the term "welfare state" leads the reader to take with a "grain of salt" what is written.

It is this reviewer's opinion, however, that this book is a definite contribution both to our field as well as to other fields. The reader will surely receive a clearer understanding of the problem considered; the historical background of the theory of the welfare state in this country and in foreign countries will certainly synthesize and supplement his knowledge. The bibliography will provide source material for further reading.

In terms of possible purposes of this series of books we may draw the following conclusions concerning this edition:

1. For the high school and college debaters, it will provide an excellent source of information. No doubt we shall hear it quoted frequently this year.
2. For research on the subject, the historical background will provide factual but incomplete information. Varying political philosophies regarding the welfare state will be clearer.
3. For the casual reader, the book will collect dust on the bookshelf. A collection of articles rarely holds attention, and the difficulty in establishing a common concept for discussion plus a repetition in historical background will tempt the reader to turn elsewhere for his casual reading.

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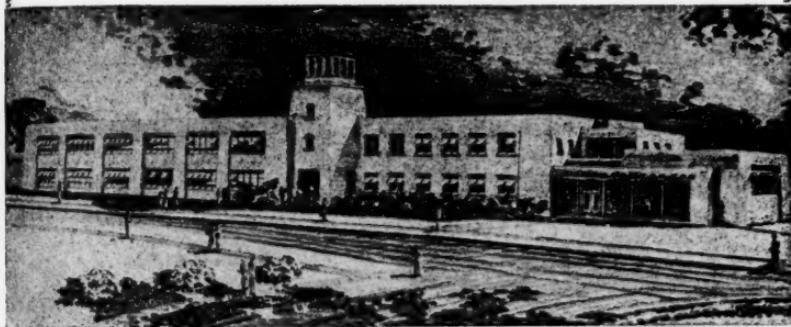
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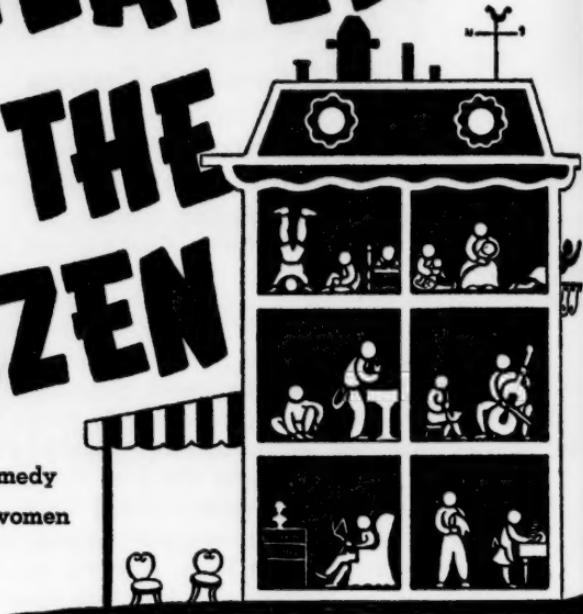
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